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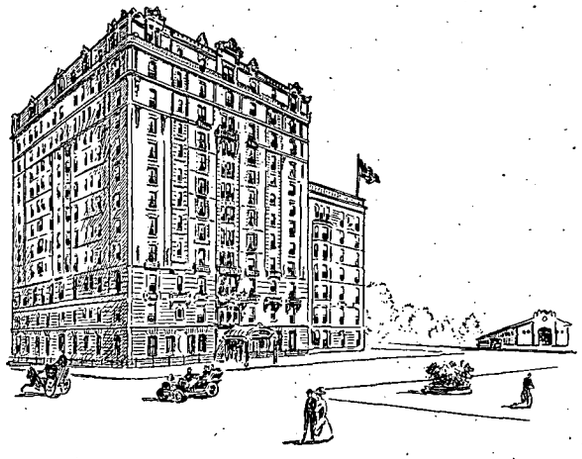

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 18, 1908.

The Week.

The cool giving out of the platform of the Chicago Convention, as approved by the President, in advance of the first session of that body, and before the platform committee has been appointed or has met, is about the last touch in cavalier disregard of appearance, of precedents, and of the feelings of the delegates. After this, there can be no decent reason for further pretence or concealment. The President is treating the Convention as the potter treats clay; of the same lump making one vessel unto honor, and another unto dishonor. And he looks for no protests whatever by the delegates. "Shall the thing formed say to him that formed it, Why hast thou made me thus?" It is either splendid audacity in the President, or sublime unconsciousness, which leads him to go straight to his object without one thought how his claim of complete ownership of the party will impress it. It is hard to imagine him getting angry, as Sir Robert Peel once did, because Cobden confounded the Prime Minister with the government. Sir Robert disclaimed anything more than his due share, but Cobden stoutly rejoined: "I treat him as the government, as he is in the habit of treating himself." President Roosevelt certainly has the habit of treating himself as the whole government and the entire party.

This break with the settled practice, in announcing the complete platform before the Convention has been called to order, is so violent that one suspects a strong motive for it. What was the situation at Chicago? One in which there was gathering danger that there might be a contest over certain resolutions. Large delegations were on the ground, ready to go before the platform committee with arguments for or against various proposed planks. Telegrams of protest and appeal were showering upon prominent members and the prospective committee on the platform. In a word, a state of division and even insubordination was threatening, which no resolute man in control like Roosevelt could tolerate. Hence the move seemed distinctly meant to head off revolt and to force the hand of the President's opponents. The chief matter in dispute was the President's plank calling for limitations upon the writ of injunction. That subject he urged and re-urged upon Congress, only to meet with repeated and rather humiliating refusals to accept his views. He apparently desired to compel the Convention to do what he could not force Congress to do. The anti-injunction issue has been taken up clamorously by large numbers of workingmen, therefore the bone of an anti-injunction plank must be thrown to organized labor. This is clearly part of the pacificatory arrangement which the President has been trying to make with Mr. Gompers and other labor leaders.

It has precipitated panic, blighted industry and trade with prolonged depression, closed factories, reduced work and wages, halted enterprises, and crippled American production.

This is an extract from the Republican national platform—not, however, of 1908, but of 1896. It shows how the mind of Republican platform-builders worked, after a serious financial panic, in tracing responsibility to the party in power. There were, to be sure, observant economists and experienced financiers in 1896, who replied indignantly that the panic of 1893 was immediately brought on by the reckless Silver-Purchase Act of 1890, a law proposed by a Republican Administration and passed in the House of Representatives with a unanimous Republican vote in its favor and a unanimous Democratic vote against it. It was also pointed out, by way of remonstrance against the "panic plank," that a Democratic President had forced upon Congress the repeal of that infamous measure, and had preserved the government's financial integrity by fearlessly using the public credit to maintain the gold reserve. But no; the platform was not to be shaken by such irrelevant considerations; the lesson of the panic was that "every consideration of public safety and individual interest demands that the government shall be rescued from the hands of those who have shown themselves incapable of conducting it"—who, of course, were the Democrats, in office during the panic of 1893.

How would these same students of public and private finance fix the responsibility for the panic of 1907, when *they* were so unlucky as to be in power? This is the interesting line of reasoning in the platform submitted for ratification in 1908:

Nothing so clearly demonstrates the sound basis upon which our commercial, industrial, and agricultural interests are founded, and the necessity of promoting their continued welfare through the operation of Republican policies, as the recent safe passage of the American people through a financial disturbance, which, if appearing in the midst of Democratic rule, or the menace of it, might have equalled the familiar Democratic panics of the past.

That is to say: We have passed through a terrific panic, for which the party in power might be blamed, if that party were the Democratic. How much worse it would have been, if a Democrat had occupied the White House! With a Democratic majority in Congress, where should we have procured the smiling sunshine and abundant moisture which have started the grain crops of 1908 with so bright a promise, and have brought a thrill of hope into the country's prostrated industries? Every one knows who caused the corn crop failure of 1894, which blighted the reviving hopes of *that* after-panic year. We do not remember to have seen the familiar theory of the Republican party as an earthly Providence more convincingly set forth than in the published draft of the party platform. It has, so far as we can see, only one false note—those "familiar Democratic panics of the past." The phrase means 1893 and 1857, of course; but where are we to classify 1873, coming on the heels of two of the greatest Republican majorities, and the longest consecutive period of Republican ascendency, in our history?

"How much did your brother spend for it?" This is, unfortunately enough, the question which will be asked of Secretary Taft from the moment he accepts the nomination. The New York *Herald* of Monday, for instance, prints an interview with Charles P. Taft, in which he was frankly asked whether he had not thus far laid out $600,000 to win the nomination for his brother. "No such thing," was Mr. Taft's reply; "no such amount of money has been spent. It is ridiculous." Perhaps it was a ridiculous guess. Certainly, the rumors which have been flying around Ohio as to what it has cost Charles Taft to get Boss Cox and the organization into line are so exaggerated as to carry their own refutation with them. But Mr. Taft is handicapped not only by being Roosevelt's echo, but by having an immensely wealthy brother who is known to be willing to make any sacrifice to land the Secretary in the White House. His enemies will make the most of this, and put forth absurd stories of Charles Taft's outlays until such time as that gentleman states the exact figure and explains just how the money has been expended. Secretary Taft has expressed his desire for a law compelling the publicity of campaign contributions. Now that his own party has denied him this comfort, we look to him to have them published of his own accord—including those sums spent in promoting his candidacy before the Convention met.

In view of the attitude of the Republican leaders towards ship-subsidies, it

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is decidedly ungrateful for C. H. Cramp to propose removal of tariff taxes as the real need of shipbuilders. In an interview in the Philadelphia *Ledger*, he says:

> Without raw materials free of duty it is impossible to build steamships of the type of the Lusitania and Mauretania in the United States and place them on the ocean in competition with England and other foreign countries.

He adds that he has worked for the tariff for years, but is now convinced that it is inapplicable to the shipping industry. "We levy a tax upon all goods that come into this country, but you can't do that with ships, and there is the story." Mr. Cramp was even so cruel as to deny that cheaper materials would mean lower wages. "We would still pay high prices for skilled work, but would expand our market and add greatly to the number of men employed." This is rank blasphemy in the eyes of all good protectionists, and something ought to be done to punish Mr. Cramp. We suggest that he be forbidden to make any further contributions to Republican campaign funds.

The rumor from Cuba by way of Mexico of a fund for another revolution to take place as soon as the retiring American troops have reached home, is an echo of what has long been talked in the cafés of Havana. At the same time, it is not to be dismissed as mere idle gossip. Unfortunately, revolutions in Cuba are dirt cheap. Any wealthy banker or sugar plantation owner can afford that luxury, and it is undeniable that many Cubans, and many Americans as well, are determined that the present experiment, and every future effort to teach the Cubans to govern themselves, shall fail. They will be satisfied with nothing less than annexation. Hence, in the Mexican rumor there is an unpleasant possibility, which is not lessened by the fact that the political conditions in Havana are growing worse. The triumphant insurgents are quarrelling among themselves and breaking up into smaller and smaller groups. There being no real issues before the republic, it is merely a question of who shall hold the offices. No strong man has arisen to fight for an independent and stable Cuba, and the early withdrawal of the American government after the hasty completion of a large amount of new organic law, adds to the unrest. A symptom of this is the 12 per cent. interest asked for money lent in Havana on first-class real-estate mortgages. Cuba is suffering, too, from a falling off in revenues and business due to the prevailing bad times.

Mexico now has a "wave" of anti-American sentiment. The merciful thing about waves of anti-foreign feeling, as of crime, hydrophobia, and of Merry Widow hats, is that they *are* waves, and, passing away, leave the soul in a state of beatific placidity. Mexican hostility to this country is hard to imagine, after the notable way in which the United States and Mexico have been co-operating for the last two years for peace and progress in Central America. Nor can we put aside the constantly growing community of interests between the two countries as American capita continues to pour into Mexican railways, mines, and plantations. After making the usual discount for the exaggerated felicitations that accompany state visits, it is still impossible to believe that Mr. Root's recent journey left no better feeling behind it. It is probably to the growing friendship of the last few years that whatever "wave" of animosity there is in Mexico may be ascribed. It is the inevitable reaction. The republic to the south has its parties, and after a long innings for th pro-Americanos the anti-Americanos are now having their say. And, of course, the same body of facts will serve both sides. American capital can develop Mexico or enslave it; coöperation in Central America enhances Mexico's reputation or conceals sinister designs on our part; and the presence of our fleet in Magdalena Bay is an augury of extreme good-will on both sides, or the first step towards a grab of territory by the United States.

The report that the British Admiralty is planning to go us "one better" by building a monster battleship of 21,000 tons within the next eighteen months is far from incredible. It illustrates the folly of this or any other country trying to surpass England in the race for naval power. Our own new ships of 20,000 tons are supposed to be better all-round vessels than the Dreadnought; but no sooner have we resolved on them than England surpasses her Dreadnought with the St. Vincent of 19,250 tons, to be at sea two years before ours, just authorized by Congress. As if this were not enough, she must needs jump ahead again and plan her 21,000-ton vessel, also to be ready for sea about the time the Florida and Utah are launched. Moreover, she purposes to mount 13.5-inch guns and to use gasolene engines. England has shown us the way with submarines, torpedoes, scout cruisers, turbine engines, and high-speed destroyers. There was a time when the Admiralty was just as slow to move and to adopt new ideas as our own bureau chiefs. It even repeated error after error with the same solid satisfaction.

That our government had joined with the British Foreign Office in friendly representations to Belgium as to the conditions under which the cession of the Congo Free State is to be effected, is first made known, so far as this country is concerned, in a dispatch from Brussels published last Tuesday. But on April 15 the Belgian Minister of Foreign Affairs declared in the Chamber:

> Two Powers, England and the United States of America, have thought it advisable to communicate to us their views. In a friendly spirit they have formulated certain wishes, submitted to our judgment certain measures. They have asked us how we interpreted the conditions of the Berlin Act regarding the betterment of the positions of the native races, and the freedom of trade now established.

At that time the Belgian Minister declined to enter more specifically into the nature of the Anglo-American proposals. Now we learn that among the desiderata formulated by us and accepted by the Belgian government are absolute freedom of commerce in the Congo, immunity from molestation for our missionaries, and a "humane and equitable" policy towards the natives. This is good news, after the recent rumor that the entire annexation treaty was in danger.

In the atmosphere of the Spanish Main the tradition of piracy still lingers, but the adventures of the steamship Goldsboro show that the game grows more difficult every year. To load a ship with what is practically a stolen cargo and sail out into the Caribbean under the protection of no nation's flag, argues courage and imagination. It is true that about two years ago a Cuban banker did succeed in making good his escape, together with a large fortune belonging to other people, by sailing on his own ship for Venezuela, where, under the protecting wing of Castro, he is reported to be prospering. But it is a different thing to start out on a Central American peddling expedition with a stolen pack and in a stolen cart. Moreover, manners in the Caribbean have been lately improving. Along the Chinese coast, in the South Sea Islands, and near the Persian Gulf, the old profession has survived; though even there the wireless telegraph and the ever-ready torpedo-boat are hurting the business. But an American who follows in the footsteps of Kidd and Lafitte, we can only look upon as an interesting survival in an age when there are insurance funds to be borrowed, railways to be merged, and banks to be directed.

Dr. Dudley A. Sargent, the director of the Harvard Gymnasium, calls attention in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June to the great improvement in the physique of both college athletes and students during the last twenty-five years. The average weight and height of the Harvard student of 1880 were just about the same as of the American youths from twenty-one to

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twenty-six years of age who entered the Federal army at the outbreak of the Civil War. The present-day undergraduate is an inch taller, from four to eight pounds heavier, and about 30 per cent. stronger. In 1880, Dr. Sargent reports, only 50 per cent. of the Harvard students would have surpassed the height and weight of the army average, while to-day 65 per cent. are superior to that standard. This, he says, "is a most remarkable uplift in growth and development for any considerable body of men in any country or community to have attained in twenty-five years"; though he admits that if all the students were measured, instead of the 60 or 65 per cent. who come under his observation, there might be a change in the average height and weight. Even with this limitation, no one will dispute the wonderful improvement in the health and physique of the average college community, whether of girls or young men. It is plain to every observer that students, as a whole, like the bulk of the American people, take better care of themselves than they did twenty-five years ago, and understand better the needs and capacity of the human machine. Yet Dr. Sargent is not content with this remarkable showing; he is so impressed by the fact that the physique of all the scholarship men of to-day is below that of the average student, that he wishes the university to establish a certain standard of physical work, to be reached by the scholar before he can receive his degree. The deficient students he divides into two classes: those who take honors merely and come from the more prosperous homes, and those who stand high and receive stipends. The physical state of the latter is particularly distressing to Dr. Sargent, for it is not only below that of the average of to-day, but also that of 1880. Hence, the desire for some kind of stimulus which shall compel the hard-working "grind" to devote a part of his time to physical development. It is, of course, no new idea that a certain amount of gymnasium exercise should be included in a college course. But at Harvard, with its thoroughgoing application of the elective system, such a requirement would seem hardly practicable. The best stimulus, as a matter of fact, is the growing knowledge that a weak physique is the worst possible equipment for the true scholar.

So many of our American families of wealth buy large portrait galleries of alleged ancestors, and are so careful to conceal the humble employments of the founders of their fortunes, that it is a genuine surprise when the truth is actually gloried in. Clarence H. Mackay, whose gift of a statue of his father to the University of Nevada was unveiled last week, has chosen to have him portrayed in the garb of the miner, pick in hand, and wearing the familiar high boots of the pioneer. It was thus that the elder Mackay made his beginning, and it was infinitely better that he should be pictured thus than in the dress of the board-room, of the dinner party, or the yacht, or in the "frock coat of statesmanship." That such men of vigorous personality, whatever their origin, can rise, remains the greatest glory of the Republic; and no memorial could better stimulate the Western students who are to enter the Nevada School of Mines. It is pleasant to add that the artist, Gutzon Borglum, has made the most of this uncommon opportunity.

By the way he received Dr. Hill at Berlin, the Kaiser showed that if impulsive men are likely to rush into mistakes, they often know how to make up for them graciously. In order to greet our new Ambassador, the Emperor broke up a vacation day at Potsdam and also disregarded the precedent that a foreign ambassador shall be in residence at least a week before he is received in audience. Dr. Hill had been in Berlin only three days, from which the amateur statisticians and expert gaugers of court favor may figure out how much more than ordinarily acceptable Mr. Tower's successor is. Every one in Berlin, of course, is now bound to make amends for the few unpleasant weeks that followed the announcement of Dr. Hill's appointment, and it may well be that in the end the affair will redound to his profit. What will be remembered is that Ambassador Hill was charged with not being enormously rich, and if there are circles at Berlin where such a disqualification counts heavily, there must be other sections of German society to whom the appointment of an ambassador in accordance with our old tradition of scholar-diplomats will not fail to appeal. We venture to say that even where the Junker rages, ability counts; and Dr. Hill will find in the relations between Germany and this country and the general European situation no lack of opportunity for showing his mettle.

The vigorous press law for which most Englishmen in India have been calling has at last been sanctioned by the Viceroy's Council, and, joined with it, comes an anti-explosives law, directed against open outrage and violence. Alarm grows sharp in India when the hitherto inoffensive Bengali takes to wielding the weapon of the Russian revolutionary and the Spanish anarchist. In the Punjab, too, till recently the supposed seat of loyalty to the British rule, the infection of unrest is spreading. Wherefore the old contempt for the weak-stomached native of Bengal is giving way to something of fear. So long as the Babu confined himself to oratory and boycott he was a nuisance. When sedition grew hot in the press, and school strikes were followed by public demonstrations, the native movement became something more of a nuisance. Still, the idea of an actual uprising against British rule was too preposterous to be connected with Bengal. But the bomb, though in the hand of the unwarlike Babu, is a very concrete danger. Terrorism is difficult to combat where the sympathy of a large element of the people is with the terrorists. And the position of the English in India, lost in a vast native population, may be harder in this respect than even that of the Russian government. There is this great difference, however, that England, while ready to make use of the mailed hand when necessary, is not as a rule stupid enough to find content in repression. Under British rule, vindicated authority is most often followed by a surrender of authority to demands that are reasonable and just.

Persia continues to exhibit the characteristic symptoms of a nation passing from an old order into a new. There is this remarkable exception, however, that the transformation from an Oriental despotism into a Constitutional state has been attended by comparatively little fighting and a minimum of bloodshed. The people of Persia must be either models of self-restraint or of native gentleness. For nearly two years there has been increasing ferment. A Constitution granted by one Shah has been ratified by his successor (who in secret has plotted against it), and, in spite of the utter inexperience of the new Parliament chosen to work it, has succeeded in maintaining itself unimpaired. The new Parliament has had to deal with an empty treasury, a treacherous sovereign, revolt, and disorders in the provinces, and with foreign aggression on the northern frontier, where Russia and Turkey have already fixed their teeth into delectable slices of Persian territory. Here is a rough parallel to conditions in France at the beginning of the great Revolution. And, if other points of similarity are wanted, we have various uncles and brothers of the Sultan trying to play the Philippe Égalité to the Louis XVI. of Mohammed Ali Shah, a patriotic priesthood taking the lead in the work of national reconstruction, and a fondness for fêting and otherwise celebrating Constitutional triumphs that are by no means secure. But of Bastille stormings, attacks on the Tuileries, and September massacres, Teheran has not tasted. The French of Asia seem to have all the progressiveness of their European models, without their liability to sudden excess.

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PINING FOR TARIFF REVISION.

At the first glance, nothing could well be more comic, or impudent, than the present assertion of the Republican party that it is bursting with desire to reduce the tariff. It now comes forward as the "original tariff-reformer." Burning with eagerness to set its hand to the work of cutting away the duties behind which monopolies take shelter, it informs the voters that all it needs is another lease of power from them in order to undo every tariff iniquity. This is to be the view of the Chicago platform. It will be the burden of Republican campaign speeches. Even a man so steeped in the gall of protection bitterness as Chairman Payne, declares:

> As surely as the next Administration is Republican, the preparation of a tariff-revision bill will be undertaken by the Committee on Ways and Means very soon after the election.

Thus we have the urgent and even pathetic appeal of a great party to the country: "For Heaven's sake, back us up in our determination to do what we have been desperately longing to do for many years."

The puzzled voter may be pardoned for scratching his head and asking: "Why have you waited until now?" Not for lack of power; the party has been in full control of all branches of the government for twelve years, with the Dingley tariff growing all the while more out of date and offensive. Neither has it been for lack of promises. The tariff was going to be "revised by its friends" in 1900, and again in 1904; but not one faithful wound of a friend has been dealt it. President Roosevelt was resolved to send in a special tariff message in December, 1904; but the tariff's friends, or the people's enemies, managed to frighten him out of that determination, which was, like all his, firm and irrevocable. Two years ago, Secretary Taft declared that the duty of reducing the tariff was "immediate." What has hindered a puissant party from doing the very thing it has so passionately desired to do?

We cannot tell; we simply record the mystery. There are those who will say that this inability of the Republican party to have its way with the tariff is more than mysterious; that it is suspicious. We know that Republicans are now most eager to cut down the Dingley duties, for they solemnly asseverate that they are; yet even in the act, one can but discern that in the very torrent, tempest, and whirlwind of their passion to revise the tariff, there is a certain temperance. There is eagerness, but it is strictly limited. Thus we have the semi-official declaration from Washington in the *Tribune:*

> If the turn of the political wheel should elect a Democratic majority in the House this autumn, there will be no tariff revision next year. This announcement will be made with considerable emphasis, for on the face of the proposition it may be seen that no revision could be brought about by a Senate and House divided on the great issues involved. Therefore, the voters of the country will be informed that if they want changes in the present tariff schedules they had better see to it that the Republican party be retained in power, both in the executive and legislative branches of the government. The Republican leaders will not hold out hope of tariff revision on any other terms.

This seems passing strange, my masters. If there is a Democratic House, it will certainly be a revisionist House. Hence it ought to be all the easier to get the work done. A Republican President has welcomed Democratic assistance in fighting for a big navy, and other measures near his heart; why not in getting rid of tariff enormities? Is he that is with me, really against me? The way the thing is put makes it appear that it is a tariff revision only as a campaign issue, and not as an object desired for itself, that the Republican party is thinking of.

And the question arises whether, in so bluntly stating the plan, the Republican managers are not much less astute politically than they imagine themselves to be. Is it wholly discreet for them to betray the fact that they count upon controlling the Senate in any event, and that a Democratic House will be powerless against it? One of their great arguments against Bryan is to be the peril to the country of unsettling legislation. But here they are admitting that they possess in the Senate an insurmountable barrier to anything of that kind. If the Senate can block Democratic tariff revision, it can block any other kind of Democratic mischief. Hence it would seem that, in their method of wheedling the voters into electing a Republican House, the party is disabling itself from terrifying the country with the possibility of Bryan.

In a large way, however, this sudden pining of the Republican party for tariff revision is to be looked upon as something much more significant than mere campaign tactics. Republican capacity to learn from the enemy is marked Especially under President Roosevelt. the party has seemed to take as its recipe for success: "Denounce the Democrats for favoring policies inimical to the welfare of the country, and then when you have got into office, quietly adopt those policies yourself." Accordingly, it would not be a departure from good precedent if the Republicans really undertook to steal the livery of Democracy to *dis*-serve the tariff in. It seems to have become clear to the party leaders that they have to do with a settled discontent, even among Republicans, over the class legislation of the Dingley tariff, and with a widespread movement to do away with as much of that injustice as possible. Life-long tariff-reformers will not, at any rate, be so inconsistent as the Republicans in refusing to accept a revision of the tariff from any hands but their own. If the Republican party does its belated duty, we will cheerfully receive that payment on account, and ask for the rest. And if it should prove to be the case that the Republicans should win through taking up the reform of the tariff, that fact would only emphasize afresh Democratic stupidity in abandoning all these years their one triumphant issue.

THE DESPISED MORAL ISSUE.

As usual, personality leaps to the front in the comment upon the extraordinary fight which was crowned with dazzling success at Albany last week. The first questions men ask are: "Who fought? Who won? Who gets the glory?" We come out of the struggle with a new hero and a new leader. The country is ringing with the name of a man previously unknown. Again the path of duty has been the path of glory. One of those immigrants who are ruining the United States by lowering our moral standards, Senator Foelker has shown a stern fidelity which a Puritan might envy, and a devotion which a Cavalier would know how to admire. People are saying that he may now have "anything he wants." He appears to be a man who wants the approval of his own conscience more than anything else; and he has set an example, and won a fame, which are at once a political inspiration and of a price above any possible political reward.

As for Gov. Hughes, who takes his great triumph so simply, he has impressed anew his fine qualities upon the nation. Such a capacity as his for moral leadership in public life has not been displayed for many a year. Every one concedes that, but for him, the intrenched race-track gamblers could not have been dislodged. And even his enemies admit that he led his fight with consummate ability, with perfect temper, and fought no man unfairly. As is said by the New York *Sun*, which has not supported Gov. Hughes nor warmed to the anti-gambling fight, he "offered no rewards for compliance and uttered no threats of Executive retaliation." The *Sun* adds a tribute to his "remarkable patience, uncommon vigor, genuine faith in his cause, and magnificent perseverance."

The time has been when the Republican party would have jumped at the chance to get such a man to lead it in a Presidential campaign. But it is jumping at command in another direction this year. Because Mr. Roosevelt had a personal dislike of Gov. Hughes, it was necessary for the party to look elsewhere for a candidate. And in all this long and dubious contest, wherein the moral forces of New York were banded

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together as never before and calling anxiously for recruits, not one word of sympathy or encouragement came from the State's most eminent citizen. The Oyster Bay Republican Senator voted against the Governor. The President was prevented from giving any aid by a sudden scruple about his Constitutional limitations! Now that the fight is won, Gov. Hughes is entitled to say to the great moral warrior of the age: "Hang yourself, brave Crillon! We have had glorious fighting, and you were not there!"

Principles, however, overshadow even personalities, and are really more instructive to one who will closely attend. Senator Foelker may cease to be talked of; Mr. Hughes may come back to his law office (though he cannot fail to remain one of our chief national assets); but the great political teaching of this wonderful campaign will abide. It is that there is no force so potent in politics as a moral issue. Politicians may scorn it, ambitious men may despise it or fight shy of it, newspapers may caricature or misrepresent it; but it has a way of confounding the plans of those who pride themselves on their astuteness, and rendering powerless the most formidable enginery of party or boss. This was the secret of Gov. Hughes's strength in his single-handed contest. He flung himself boldly upon the moral sentiment of the State. He was able to pierce to the popular conscience. His own unselfishness being transparent as the day, his refusal to wage anything but an open and honorable warfare being absolute and unquestioned, his steady insistence upon the fundamental morality of his cause was what swung the State to him, and compelled the Legislature to bow before a greater power than itself.

The occasional winning of such moral victories in public life is as bracing as a breath from the north in summer. It helps to keep alive the belief in the sound instincts and the sure progress of democracy. The philosophic Italian writer, Guglielmo Ferrero, has recently been pointing out the contradictory ideas about progress in civilization. He makes the point that if modern nations are not to be driven to ennui or decadence by the very success of a material civilization, they must have the tonic of struggle for moral improvement. It is, therefore, both reassuring and heartening when a man can go as Gov. Hughes has done before a great democratic community, with a single and naked question of morality, and get such an overwhelming response. He has uncovered a political power of which the professional manipulators of elections and legislatures are ignorant But, then, it is an old reproach against politicians that they do not know their own trade. In the midst of their sneers at a moral issue and at "Charles the Evangelist," they found themselves swept away by a mighty force which they had no means of either measuring or resisting.

STANFORD AS A GRADUATE SCHOOL

President Jordan of Stanford University, in his last annual report, urges the abolition of the undergraduate college. His views on this subject have been briefly outlined in the press dispatches, but the complete report, just received, presents his case more fully. Thus far Stanford has been chiefly a large college; "its university work, though not extensive, has justly commanded respect." He then asks whether Stanford is to be a college or a university, or a compound of both; and he answers that in his judgment, "the last cannot be a permanent condition in any of our large institutions." He thus sums up his case:

> Collegiate instruction is relatively cheap. It is given well in upwards of two hundred institutions in America, and more or less badly in as many more. University work on a large scale is expensive. If properly undertaken, it is the choice privilege of the few institutions that are generously endowed or that are the educational pride of wealthy States. Among these Stanford University must stand. Its great endowment was given for that purpose, and its freedom from outside control enables it to undertake lines of work and long-continued series of investigations, efforts of the highest intellectual type, which would not find support in public institutions with their natural tendency towards the demand for immediate results.

As a step toward the desired end, he proposes, within the next five years, to add two years to the entrance requirements—that is, to take only students who have completed the work of freshmen and sophomores and who are presumably ready for the advanced work that is proper to a university. He would then give the bachelor's degree in two years.

The experiment, if tried, will be extremely interesting. University study in this country—that is, our professional and graduate schools—has in general been an outgrowth of the college. The graduate school was begun as a sort of continuation of the undergraduate course. Schools of law, medicine, engineering, and theology have sprung up beside the college, and often the requirements for entrance have been as low as those for college, or even lower. Indeed, some engineering schools have taken boys who are younger and more poorly trained than the average entering freshman. Even to-day it is only the stronger schools of law, medicine, and theology that demand for admission a full college course or its equivalent. The two notable attempts to establish independent graduate work in this country have been Johns Hopkins and Clark; but both institutions have found it desirable to organize also an undergraduate college. One reason is that the university needs a feeder. A man who has gone through the regular course, say, at Harvard, Yale, or Columbia, is likely to stay there for graduate work. He knows the teachers; he has formed social ties; the studies he has already pursued articulate closely with those which are to follow. The independent graduate school must therefore offer extraordinarily attractive courses, it must have the ablest professors, the best of libraries and laboratories, and the largest resources if it is to compete with the graduate schools which rest on a college.

And here arises a difficult problem of administration. Graduate work, as President Jordan says, is costly. A single highly paid professor may conduct only two or three classes with a pupil or two in each. In Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and Cornell, on the other hand, many of the professors devote at least part of their time to undergraduate classes—some of them largely attended. Moreover, the advanced courses are often open to qualified juniors and seniors, as well as to students who have already received degrees. Thus the basis of financial support for a course is much broadened. Indeed, it is not unfair to say that a considerable portion of the graduate instruction in the universities we have just mentioned, and in many others also, is a comparatively inexpensive by-product of undergraduate instruction. An enormous endowment, then, is necessary if an independent graduate school is to offer anything like the facilities which an undergraduate and a graduate school combined may command. On this point President Pritchett of the Carnegie Foundation—whom President Jordan quotes—said in his second annual report:

> Whatever may be the advantages of the combination of the college and the university into one organization, I am convinced that it would be of immense value to the educational system of the country if a few strong universities could be established, with generous facilities for social intercourse, but without undergraduate colleges. Such institutions would, if properly endowed and supported, constitute an independent influence in the formation of university standards which could not fail to benefit all universities alike. It is to be regretted that some of the newly founded institutions did not forego the prestige of an undergraduate college for the sake of this leadership.

This leadership is what Stanford is now to attempt. Neither the Johns Hopkins nor Clark has had enough money to equip thoroughly all its graduate departments and secure the most competent teachers and investigators. Each could use to advantage several million dollars more. In certain lines, then, neither of these universities can offer advantages that are indubitably superior to those elsewhere; and in other

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branches the Ph.D. of Johns Hopkins or Clark may mean less than a similar degree from Harvard or Columbia. The man who wants the very best, then, does not always have to go to either of the universities which profess graduate work as their specialty. But Stanford—as soon as San Francisco and the State of California have fairly recovered themselves—will have the interest on twenty-five or thirty millions. Its site is by no means ideal for graduate work. Students may be disinclined to spend their first two years at one college and then break off to attend Stanford. But if, in spite of these drawbacks, Stanford, with its vast wealth devoted solely to advanced work, cannot build up a great graduate school, then, for at least a generation, the attempt will probably be given up as hopeless.

CRIME IN ENGLAND.

The criminal statistics for England and Wales for the year 1906 have lately appeared. The volume is of unusual interest because it completes a half century since the annual returns of trials at assizes and quarter sessions were superseded in 1857 by more complete statistics of crimes and offences and criminal proceedings. The commissioners have regarded it as a suitable occasion for reviewing the movement of crime since 1857. Owing to extensive changes in criminal law included in the Consolidation Acts of 1861, exact comparison with the figures of 1857 is not always possible, but a brief retrospect is given and is full of interest.

The number of persons tried for indictable offences in 1906 (59,079) very closely approximates the figures of 1857 (54,667). It appears that the number of thefts for 1906 is almost the same as in 1857. But in fifty years the population has increased from nineteen and a quarter millions to thirty-four and a half millions. In proportion to the population, thefts have therefore diminished about 40 per cent. Offences against the person show no marked tendency to increase. There are positive indications of a great decrease in highway robbery. The figures in 1857 were 625, as against 209 in 1906. There is less opportunity for Dick Turpin to follow his profession to-day than in the old times when footpads were numerous; but satisfaction at this change is somewhat chilled by noting that the offences of burglary and housebreaking are increasing. In 1857 the figures were 1,644; in 1906 they were 3,174. The commissioners attribute a part of this apparent increase to the shorter sentences customary in 1906 as compared with 1857. This raises the question whether professional thieves belonging to this class do not need some more effective treatment than the short sentence. An habitual criminal law providing for the prolonged confinement of professional criminals might materially alter the figures. Arson has practically been stationary, as has also forgery. Prosecutions for riot, common fifty years ago, are now comparatively rare—138 in 1857, and only 26 in 1906.

A social and penological indication of marked importance is seen in the great increase in the number of prosecutions for attempts to commit suicide. There has been a continuous increase from 18 in 1861, to 298 in 1906. Here is ground for investigation as to the reason for the increased number of suicides, and as to the causes, such as intemperance. The question arises also whether the cataloguing of suicide as a crime and the punishment of attempts at suicide by imprisonment are rational ways of dealing with such cases. Of the number prosecuted in England last year for attempted suicide, 78 were committed to prison. Under the code of New York, suicide is also defined as a crime, and the makers of the code felt obliged to explain the reason that no penalty is attached to it:

> Although suicide is deemed a grave public wrong, yet from the impossibility of reaching the successful perpetrator no forfeiture is imposed.

Attempted suicide in New York is ranked as a felony punishable by imprisonment in the State Prison not exceeding two years or by a fine not exceeding $1,000, or both. While this offence is still catalogued as a crime in the code, the commitment of persons to prison for attempts upon their own life has been practically abandoned in New York; and, so far as we know, the fear of imprisonment has no deterrent effect upon this class of offenders. Its natural influence might be to cause the person contemplating suicide to take even greater pains to make the attempt a success.

While there has been a gratifying decrease of crime in England, the tables of non-indictable offences of a less serious character have grown from 215,787 in 1857 to 618,714 in 1906. Many of these are due to the contravention of police regulations. There has been a large increase, however, in commitments for drunkenness: 75,859 persons in 1857, and 211,493 in 1906. When we ask what are the causes of this changing phase of crime and the general reduction of crimes against property, it must be ascribed not to drastic laws or a severe penal system, but to the development of educational and preventive work. It is evident, on the other hand, that no penal system has corrected, or will be likely to correct, those forms of crime which are directly due to intemperance; hence it is not surprising that English statesmen are turning their attention to measures for regulating and reducing the liquor traffic.

GASTON BOISSIER.

A lecturer in a German university once remarked, with a certain pride, that no teacher in the institutions of his country bore such a title as *professeur de l'éloquence latine;* a professor of classical philology roamed too wide a field to be thus circumscribed. Truly the ideal scholar should have interests both deep and comprehensive—but titles sometimes are misleading. The great Frenchman whose death on June 10 is deplored by scholars of every sect, professed the mere title of *l'éloquence latine,* but he revived in his teaching and his written works all that *eloquentia* meant to Cicero, to Quintilian, to Petrarch and the Renaissance.

Gaston Boissier was born in 1823 at Nîmes, in the Provence, a delightful region, almost as Roman, with its ancient remains, as Italy itself, yet with an atmosphere in which Italian mellowness is infused with the clearer and subtler spirit of France. Perhaps it was the constant sight of the Maison Carrée and the Roman amphitheatre of his native town that turned the attention of the youthful Boissier to archæology. Archæology, certainly, in its most significant aspect—the imaginative reconstruction of the past—was a dominant interest throughout his career. His earliest publications were on literary themes, but on such themes as involve a new creation of lost material; he discussed in his Latin dissertation for the doctorate, the manner in which Plautus translated Greek plays—plays no longer extant; he wrote on the poet Attius and the Roman tragedy of the republic—tragedy that has come down to us in scattered fragments; he essayed a task that has fascinated many—the reconstruction of the life and writings of the erudite Varro; he argued that Seneca's plays could not have been written for the stage. Of these works, the earliest appeared in 1857, and the latest in 1861; during part of this time, and before, he had been professor of rhetoric at Angoulême and Nîmes.

But Boissier was attracted by the actualities as well as the possibilities of antiquity. Appointed in 1861 to the chair of Latin eloquence at the Collège de France, he began appropriately with a course on the times of Cicero. In a brilliant lecture of introduction, he implies that the study of history means to him the study of personalities; Cicero and his friends are to furnish the clue to the movements of the age. To these personalities he devoted special essays, later to be combined into one of his most popular and delightful books. A passing reference to Saint-Simon and a comparison of Cicero and Mme. de Sévigné are prophetic, too, of further works to come; there is hardly a paragraph of the brief lecture which did not later develop into some fuller treatment. To Boissier's hearers, his theme, so eloquently presented, must have thrilled with an almost contemporary interest, for France had passed from an age of Republican revolution to one of Imperialism. The lecturer gives this element of modernity just enough prominence, and protests against the abuse of it:

> Ces illustres morts nous sembleront mériter mieux que de servir d'instruments aux querelles qui nous divisent, et nous respecterons assez leur mémoire et leur repos pour ne pas les traîner dans l'arène de nos discussions journalières. Nous n'ou-

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blierons jamais que c'est outrager l'histoire que de la mettre au service des intérêts changeants des partis, et qu'elle doit être, suivant la belle expression de Thucydide, une œuvre faite pour éternité, κτῆμα ἐς ἀεί.

These words might be pondered by those who would save classical studies for our age by connecting them with modern occurrences or modern literature. A teacher who makes Horace dull will not enliven him by humbling Milton's strains for accompaniment; a teacher like Boissier, though concerned at many points with the relations of the classics to modernity, interprets absolute values which make their direct appeal.

That a professor of Latin eloquence would interpret his subject broadly is shown by Boissier's appointment in 1865 as *maître de conférences* at the École Normale to succeed Sainte-Beuve in the course on Latin poetry. Latin poetry, too, is a restricted subject, but as yet the fame of Sainte-Beuve has nothing to fear from what professors of classical philology have achieved in universal criticism. Eleven years later, Boissier was elected to the French Academy, in the place of M. Patin. In the interval there had appeared, besides his studies of Cicero and his friends, a noble group of essays, published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, which develop the various interests conspicuous at the beginning of his career. His archæological tendencies now result in a discussion of the progress of archæology and in a sketch of ancient life in Pompeii; based on sober fact, this brilliant portrait makes the pages of Bulwer and Sienkiewicz seem tawdry and dull. The publication of Le Blant's "Inscriptions chrétiennes de la Gaule" suggested an interpretation of this new material; the appearance of those important works, the "Histoire poétique de Charlemagne," by Gaston Paris, and "Les Épopées françaises," by Léon Gautier, inspired one of the most penetrating and universal of all his writings, an essay on recent theories of the epic. A series of papers treated of Roman society under the Empire, and there followed in 1874 a more profound study of the Roman spirit in the two volumes on "La Religion romaine," in which the treatment is by no means confined to religion, but includes among other things an appreciation of Virgil and of Seneca, quite as important for the literary criticism of these authors. Finally there had appeared a work which includes and supplements his earlier studies on Roman society, and is significant likewise for the history of philosophy and for literary history—"L' Opposition sous les Césars." Varied interests, searching analysis, profound generalizations characterize these writings; they show the universal outlook, a spirit of placid Horatian urbanity, a sprightly wit. Their author was justly selected as successor to Patin and Sainte-Beuve.

Two of these essays, not so much before the public to-day as Boissier's larger works, give more definite expression than these do to those ultimate principles which guided him as author and as critic. The essay on the progress of archæology and that on the theory of epic are really documents of literary criticism; they present different aspects of the same problem and hold an important relation to ideas current at that time and at this. The first gives small comfort to those who regard a proper contempt for science as a part of the humanist's outfit. Boissier is intensely interested not only in the great scientific advances of the last century, but in the minutiæ of philology, which he regards as material for the enrichment of appreciation. A doctor's dissertation restricted to Roman door-knobs or the inscriptions on lead *tesserœ* would have aroused in him, not gentle laughter, but sincere respect, if the task were well performed. In fact, in discussing the progress of epigraphy, he speaks of "Mêmes ces balles de plomb des soldats sur lesquelles on inscrivait des plaisanteries," and remarks: "Que des choses n'y trouvons nous pas dont les historiens n'ont pas parlé, et qui nous rendent l'histoire plus vivante." Nor did he indulge in easy vituperation of whatever goes on *au-delà du Rhin*; it is not as a jest that he tells of Ritschl's course on Latin grammar which finished part of the alphabet—it is to commend the intellectual curiosity of the two hundred students who attended such a course. In brief, he criticises French scholarship for its lack of minute analysis; he prophesies for it a great career in case French clarity assimilate German science—a prophecy which his inspiration has helped largely to fulfil. For him, Latin eloquence and classical philology are, it would seem, synonymous terms:

C'est abandonner l'antiquité que de se contenter de la connaître à peu près et seulement par ses côtés littéraires. Les sociétés et les littératures anciennes ne redeviennent vivantes pour nous que lorsqu'on descend au détail, et cette prétendue critique qui s'amuse à discuter à propos des auteurs, qui, après un examen superficiel, fabrique des théories, qui recherche partout les idées générales afin de se dispenser d'avoir des idées précises, est la mort des véritables études.

This wholesome regard for science, and its incorporation in something larger, might not prepare Boissier's readers for the views on literary criticism expressed in his essay on the epic. He recognized the value of the modern schools; like his favorite Saint-Simon, he found it "bon d'avoir le nez tourné à l'avenir." The results of historical and philological criticism he welcomed, but in a period dominated by the influence of Taine, he rejected the doctrine which "prétend juger l'homme et ses productions comme on classe les plantes en botanique, comme on décompose les corps en chimie." In an earlier essay, contrasting the moral revolution effected by Christianity with the insignificant poetry which at first accompanied its triumph, he concluded that we are ignorant of the causes that produce great men and bring on the great ages; in the matter of literary inspiration, the wind bloweth where it listeth. He pleads for a large and flexible appreciation, capable of understanding all countries and all times, epochs civilized and epochs primitive. His discussion of the epic is a model of this very sympathy and discrimination. Unlike the pseudo-classicist, he recognizes in the Middle Ages something more than the playground of Goths and Huns; unlike the pseudo-romanticist, he refuses to call Virgil's epic artificial; he expends genial satire on Mommsen's criticism of Latin poetry, though in his former essay he had given this scholar the highest praise as scientist and historian. The ideas suggested in this paper on the epic still deserve the attention of writers on two baffling themes—the authenticity of the Homeric poems, and the nature of popular poetry.

Of further honors bestowed on Boissier, it is necessary to mention only his election to the Académie des Inscriptions in 1886, and his appointment as perpetual secretary of the Académie Française in 1895. As to his writings, one could almost predict, from what he had done, the volumes on Mme. de Sévigné (1888), and Saint-Simon (1892). Archæology appears again—and more than archæology—in his "Promenades" through Rome and Pompeii and the country of Horace and Virgil, and in his "L'Afrique romaine" (1895). His interest in both Roman religion and the origins of Christianity finds expression in the splendid volumes on "La Fin du paganisme" (1891), which have inspired admirable works by French scholars in the same field. Finally, he published a volume on Tacitus (1903), and one on "La Conjuration de Catilina" (1905). The surpassing importance of these works for the student of antiquity and for the modern historian has already received attention in these columns. It is interesting that, in his last book, he should return to the subject with which he began his course on *l'éloquence latine*.

I have pointed to two distinct classes in Boissier's works, one archæological in spirit, devoted to the reconstruction of what no longer exists; one interpretative, devoted to accessible records. There is no absolute cleavage between the two. His reconstructions proceed carefully on the basis of the known; his interpretations do not end with what is before us; they reconstruct personalities and ideals—Cicero and his friends, Tacitus and the method of the ancient historian. Both undertakings are of the highest order. They depend on a quality without which classical studies or any other studies are dead—the creative imagination. Boissier modestly said of his Catiline that it contained nothing new; so there is nothing new in the chemical ingredients from which a new substance is formed. E. K. RAND.

Cambridge, Mass.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

It is well known that American editions of several of Thackeray's books were published prior to the recognized first English editions. Some were collections of magazine contributions issued with the authority of their author, but many were pirated or unauthorized. To a less extent the same thing is true of Dickens. Two pamphlets of this character not included in any of the published bibliographies of Dickens have recently turned up. The first has the title:

Public Life of Mr. Tulrumble, Once Mayor of Mudfog, and Oliver Twist; or, The Paris Boy's Progress. By "Boz," Sold by all the Principal Booksellers. New-York 1837.

This contains 52 pages, measuring 6⅛ by 3¾ inches, in pink paper covers. Of the two sketches mentioned on the title, the first, "Public Life of Mr. Tulrumble," appeared in the first number of *Bentley's Miscellany*, January, 1837. The second, the first two chapters of Oliver Twist, appeared in *Bentley's* for February. No doubt, they were reprinted as soon as the February

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number of the magazine reached America. Chapters iii. and iv. appeared in the March number; but this pamphlet contains no mention of any continuation. When Oliver Twist was published in three volumes, 8vo, the next year, some alterations were made. The first sentence in the magazine and in this pamphlet begins: "Among other public buildings in the town of Mudfog," etc. In the first and later editions this is altered to "In a certain town which for many reasons it will be prudent to refrain from mentioning," etc.

The second of these pamphlets is entitled:

Travelling Letters. Written on the Road. By Charles Dickens. New York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

This is a 12mo., consisting of title and 22 pages of text, bound in brown paper. The pamphlet is very thin, but the wrapper is lettered lengthwise "Dickens' Travelling Letters.—Part I." showing that when the cover was printed the intention was to make the volume much thicker. Dickens visited Italy in 1844 and 1845. On his return he contributed a series of articles to the *Daily News*, No. I. of which was issued under his editorship, January 21, 1846. These sketches continued irregularly through January, February, and March. Later in the year they were collected in book form as "Pictures from Italy." The three "Letters" included in this pamphlet appeared in the *Daily News* for January 21, 24, and 31. Together they fill pp. 1-37 of the first English edition. The date at the beginning of the narrative which is "eighteen hundred and forty-four" in the first edition, as it was in fact, is "eighteen hundred and forty-five" in this pamphlet. On the publication of the English edition Wiley and Putnam brought out an American edition, "Price 38 cents." It is not likely that more than this Part I. of these letters was ever published in this form.

Correspondence.

"VIRGINIANS" IN 1630.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the "News for Bibliophiles," in the *Nation* of June 11, is described "a bibliographical curiosity" entitled "Pathomachia," published in 1630, and containing this passage: "Arrant Traytors, doe not the verie Virginians know that the Person of a King is sacred."

This is "a very early reference to Virginians," according to your bibliographer, who remarks: "It would be interesting to know what account of Virginia was in the memory of the writer when he made that reference." Your bibliographer is apparently under the impression that by "Virginians" the 1630 author meant the English colonists in Virginia, is disturbed at the contemptuous opinion of them seemingly entertained by the author, and wonders whence the opinion was derived. If this assumption is correct, it can be shown, I think, that your bibliographer's anxiety is misplaced. For by "the verie Virginians," the 1630 author meant not the English colonists in Virginia, but the *Indians* of Virginia. Just as, throughout the seventeenth century, by "an American" was always meant a native of America—that is, a North American Indian; so, too, prior to 1630, by "a Virginian" was always meant a native of Virginia—that is, an Indian. At least, no instance before 1630 is known to the present writer of the employment of the noun Virginian except in reference to an Indian. On the other hand, it can be shown that early in the seventeenth century the word "Virginians" was sometimes applied to the Indians of Virginia.

In his "Map of Virginia," published in 1612, Capt. John Smith headed a section "Of the manner of the Virginians government" (p. 34). These words were repeated in 1624 by Smith in his "Generall Historie of Virginia" (book II., p. 37), and were reprinted by Purchas in 1625 in his "Pilgrimes" IV., 1703). It should be added, in passing, that a chapter in W. Strachey's "Historie of Travaile into Virginia Britannia," written about 1612, is headed: "The manner of the Virginian government, their townes, their howses, dyett, fowling, and hunting, their gaming, musique, dauncing" (Hakluyt Society edition, p. 69). James Rosier's "Trve Relation" of Waymouth's voyage was first printed in 1605. Almost the last words were: "The names of the flue Saluages which we brought home into England, which are all yet alive, are these" (Gorges Society edition, p. 160). When Rosier's Relation was reprinted by Purchas in his "Pilgrimes," some changes and additions—whether by Rosier or by Purchas, I do not know—were made at the end; and the above words were altered to "The Names of [illegible] *Virginians*" (IV., 1667). In 1606 George Percy wrote:

At Port *Cotage* in our voyage vp the Riuer, we saw a Sauage Boy about the age of ten yeeres, which had a head of haire of a perfect yellow and a reasonable white skinne, which is a Miracle amongst all Saluages.

In the margin are the words, presumably written by Purchas, "Yellow haired *Virginian*" ("Pilgrimes," IV., 1689).

When was the noun Virginian first applied to an English colonist in Virginia? In a letter dated Saybrook, Connecticut, November 6, 1636, Lion Gardiner wrote to John Winthrop, jr.:

I heare that the Bachelor is to bringe vs provision, I pray you forgett vs not when shee comes from the Bermudas with some potates, for heare hath beene some Virginians that hath taught vs to plant them after a nother way, and I have put it in practise, and found it good (Mass. Hist. Colls., Fourth Series, VII., 54).

Were these "Virginians" Indians or white men? If the latter, it is the earliest example of the noun in that sense known to the present writer. It is worth while to quote from a pamphlet printed in 1638. In his "Trve Relation," or history of the Pequot war, P. Vincent declared that "the long forbearance and too much lenity of the English towards the Virginian salvages, had like to have been the destruction of the whole plantation." A little later, speaking of the New Englanders, Vincent said:

In a word, they have built fair towns of the land's own materials, and fair ships, too, some whereof are here to be seen on the Thames; they have overcome cold and hunger, are dispersed securely in their plantations sixty miles along the coast, and within the land also, along some small creeks and rivers, and are assured by their peace, by killing the barbarians, better than our English Virginians were by being killed by them" (Mass. Hist. Colls., Third Series, VI., 37, 42).

Here, then, as late as 1638, a writer has to use the qualifying adjective "English" to distinguish the English colonists in Virginia from the aborigines.

Can there be much doubt that the 1630 author, when he made the above reference, had in mind the account of Virginia published by the redoubtable Smith?

Albert Matthews.

Boston, June 12.

AUTHORS AND THEIR OWN BOOKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an interesting article by Prof. Hiram Corson, entitled "A Few Reminiscences about Robert Browning," which recently appeared in the *Cornell Era*, the writer states that once, when visiting the English poet, he took the opportunity to ask about a certain passage in "The Ring and the Book." Browning's reply was: "I don't remember the passage. It has been some time since I read the poem, and I haven't a copy of it in my house!" As Professor Corson suggests, the poet probably gave away to his friends all "author copies" he received from his publishers, and so had none left for himself.

In this connection it may be interesting to recall a similar and perhaps even more striking confession on the part of Goethe. On his way from Weimar to Switzerland, Goethe stopped off at Frankfort to visit his mother and his old friends. From there he sent a letter to his friend, the physiologist Sömmerring, and under date of August 21, 1797, wrote: "And what will you say to it, if I ask you to purchase for me at Forster's auction, the older as well as the later edition of my collected works?" Goethe, after specifying the "reasonable figure" which Sömmerring's offer was not to exceed, then adds the most surprising statement: "I haven't had a copy of my works in the house for several years." Then, as if he felt it incumbent upon himself to justify his request for his own works, he explains: "I have a special reason for going through them again at this time." Such confessions as these would seem to contradict the notion which, as Goethe himself puts it, charges authors with "liking best to read their own works." C. H. Ibershoff.

Cornell University, June 14.

THE ART-HISTORICAL EXHIBITION AT BRYN MAWR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Every student of art who was able to visit the exhibition of photographs at Bryn Mawr, noticed in the *Nation* for June 4, must feel grateful to the private collectors who contributed generously to the success of the undertaking. The exhibition suggests the reflection that it should be the ambition of every earnest collector to see his art in its exact station and setting, and to this end to allow of the most exhaustive illustration and comparison. This is, of course, ideal; but a complete illustration of old masters in America in good photographs would much amaze us. It would also much instruct. For a very brave attempt at such illustration the Bryn Mawr authorities deserve high credit.

William Rankin.

Roselle Park, N. J., June 9.

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Notes.

In the autumn we are to have a long work on "Charles Dickens and his Circle," by W. Teignmouth Shore.

Arthur Dasent believes that many letters from J. T. Delane were omitted in his recent biography, and requests that any such be sent to the publisher, John Murray, No. 50 Albemarle Street, London, for use in a second edition. The letters will, of course, be returned.

"Over against Green Peak," by Zephine Humphrey (Henry Holt & Co.) is a record of country life far above the average of its class in the qualities which go to make such a book enjoyable. Three women of New York, after unsatisfying experience in mere summer boarding, buy an old house with a bit of land in Dorset, Vt., and set up for themselves. It is a situation about which any amount of commonplace might easily be written, but the reader at once finds that he is not dealing with a commonplace mind. The author sees the things that are worth seeing, and she has a rather unusual command of simple, dignified, and effective English. She does not blink the difficulties of housekeeping in the country, caring for a horse, picking and marketing the produce of the little orchard, and other such tasks; but is perfectly willing to forego the city privileges and conveniences which must be purchased at the cost of light, space, and serenity, of mountains and sky and silence.

The Neale Publishing Company (New York and Washington) has projected a series of volumes under the general title of The Huntsman in the South, the first of which deals with Virginia and North Carolina, and comes from the pen of Alexander Hunter, author of "Johnny Reb and Billy Yank." The fox chase and the old-fashioned "coon-hunt" seem especially to waken the author's enthusiasm, though duck shooting naturally claims a large share of his attention. Mr. Hunter has much of interest to tell, especially in his reminiscences of the older South, but he is not imbued with the newer ideals of sportsmanship. His duck shooting stories are too often mere illustrations of the wasteful methods which threaten the total extinction of that sport, and can hardly please the discriminating reader. One who stops to consider can only be disgusted with such stories as that of the wealthy club member who spends two months on the club preserves entirely alone, and reports a record of eight hundred ducks slaughtered. The author speaks of two hundred and sixty canvasbacks in one day as the finest bag within his own knowledge. He should rather have said the most disgraceful. The man who slaughters in that style should have his records posted in the abattoirs of Armour or Cudahy, not published in the literature of gentleman's sports.

Dr. Emile Reich, author of "Foundations of Modern Europe, 1760-1871" (The Macmillan Co.) is not a well-equipped historian. For example, he believes that documents of a later date than 1760 at the British Record Office are, "as a rule, not fully accessible"; he may be interested to hear that even Foreign Office papers, the most jealously guarded of all, may be consulted without any difficulty, for more than half a century beyond this date. He tells us that the Czarina Elizabeth "sacrificed hundreds of thousands of men" to the belief that Prussia was the hereditary enemy of Russia; but the fact is that there was no hereditary enmity whatever at the time of the Seven Years' war, and that Russia had made no such sacrifices; further, it was Peter III., not Catherine, who was responsible for the change of policy that possibly saved Frederick the Great. She was more hostile to Frederick than her predecessor. But it is not only in detail that this work fails, but in larger generalizations, which might, if well founded, counterbalance some degree of inaccuracy in minor points. Of the revolutions of 1848, the most important and interesting, according to our author, was that of Hungary; for this opinion he advances a number of reasons, among which perhaps the most striking is that in Hungary "every peasant is eloquent." In preaching the sacred duty of war, Dr. Reich declares in sweeping fashion that when "we study the period of a nation that has for one motive or another kept peace, given up martial aggressiveness, in other words, acted up to the advice of the modern millionaire philanthropists, we invariably find that nation come to grief and ruin. Consider . . . Austro-Hungary. Since 1866 she has . . . abstained . . . from . . . wars . . . and has consequently suffered . . . a loss of real power, such as she never suffered in the times of her greatest defeats under Napoleon." Furthermore, it is impossible to establish any such comprehensive statement as that on page 99: "Marie Louise was the most flippant, the most sensual, and morally the weakest woman of her time." Nor (p. 111) that the war of 1812 between England and the United States was brought about "chiefly through the manœuvres of Napoleon." But enough has been said to demonstrate that Hungarian eloquence can never be a substitute for historical judgment and historical sense.

Two volumes, with a total of 745 pages, seem a good deal to devote to a woman whom Sainte-Beuve once sketched for us in thirty-five pages. But this "Princess of Intrigue," Geneviève de Bourbon, Duchesse de Longueville, so elaborately studied by H. Noel Williams (G. P. Putnam's Sons) was something more than a professional beauty of her time; she participated in all the great events of one of the most turbulent periods of the seventeenth century, and was at the very centre of its political, social, and literary life. Mazarin placed her among the three women capable both of "governing and upsetting three great kingdoms." The Princesse Palatine and the Duchesse de Chevreuse are the two others. Indeed, this conscientious but somewhat longdrawn biography is less a study of a single character than a picture of a whole period, the first part of the seventeenth century, from the declining years of Henry IV. to the spectacular accession of Louis XIV. The Thirty Years war, the negotiations of Munster, the government of Mazarin, the intrigues of the Fronde are part of this picture; there is not an important society, religious or literary, not a fashionable set, where Mme. de Longueville does not appear. She shines at the Hôtel de Rambouillet when it was at its height with Corneille and Voiture as protagonists; after her conversion from a life of dissipation to one of mortification she entrusts her soul partly to the care of the aristocratic Carmelite sisters, partly to the austere régime of Port Royal. By following her, we become acquainted with all the men and women who were then making history, among them La Rochefoucauld, Beaufort, Guise, Coligny, Turenne, and Mmes. de Sévigné, de Chevreuse, de Sablé, and de Montbazon. The author does more than mention these. To almost every one he devotes long digressions that somewhat break the thread of the narrative. As a history of French society this carefully prepared and richly illustrated work will be valuable to readers who have no access to the French material which the author has used freely.

"A Sister of Marie Antoinette," an account of the life of Maria Carolina, Queen of Naples, by (Mrs.) Catherine Mary Bearne (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is an energetic essay in book-making by main strength. The secondary sources have been ransacked and freely transcribed, no expense has been spared in the matter of illustrations, and a story full of intrinsic interest is told in a style of vivacious dulness, with a syntax of its own. The heroine herself is, in any presentation, a striking type of woman in politics. Her hatred and dread of Napoleon, the trouble she managed to give him, and her embarassment when she became his grandmother-in-law, form a dramatic theme which hardly needs the enlivenment furnished by her entanglement in the affairs of Nelson and Lady Hamilton. In her realm, as in that of Prince Otto, politics and love affairs were hardly distinguishable in method, in content, or in importance.

For more than half a century, between the years 1714 and 1771, Christopher Dock, a native of Germany, taught school among the Germans in what is now Montgomery County, Pennsylvania. In 1750, he was with difficulty persuaded to write a detailed explanation of his method of school management, which was published by Saur, the Germantown printer. Interesting in point of time, this, the earliest American book about school teaching, is remarkable for insight into human nature, for the admirable character which it revealed, and for its minute statement of an educational method which substituted the law of love for the rule of force, long before the change had been made in the school world. Dr. Martin G. Brumbaugh, formerly commissioner of education in Porto Rico, now superintendent of the Philadelphia schools, has collected and translated into English all of the writings of Christopher Dock, which, with a brief sketch of his life, illustrations showing some of his schoolroom furniture, and reproductions of his manuscripts, are published in one volume by J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, in an edition of 1,000 copies. An introductory note is supplied by ex-Gov. S. W. Pennypacker of Pennsylvania, who first made Christopher Dock known to the educational world with a translation of the "Schul-Ordnung" and an English version in the original metre of one of Dock's hymns.

An excessive modernity, including a style not infrequently verging upon the flippant, characterizes "Our Colonial Curriculum," the presentation of Colyer Meriwether's

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diligent research among the textbooks, educational histories, and schemes of study relating to some of the colonial colleges of America (Washington: Capital Publishing Company). Mr. Meriwether's exploration has been confined mostly to the colleges of New England and Virginia. Doubtless, as Mr. Meriwether argues, a large proportion of effort was wasted in educational directions in the past, as in every manifestation of energy, but is it quite certain that the educators of to-day, with their increased knowledge of nature, have overcome nature's method of doing much to produce a little? It should be said in Mr. Meriwether's behalf that in a paragraph now and then he modifies the force of his argument, and suggests that perhaps textbooks do not tell the whole story and that, may be, after all, the educational effort of the past was not entirely thrown away.

The Cambridge University Press (G. P. Putnam's Sons) has put out "Altera Colloquia Latina," adapted from Erasmus, with notes and a vocabulary, by G. M. Edwards. We have often wondered why these colloquies are not more used in American schools. They have a certain sparkle which carries the student on from day to day.

To those who wish to sip in condensed form that intoxicant known as the Wisdom of the East we recommend a series of slender booklets published under that title by E. P. Dutton & Co. Each volume contains the translation, in full or in part, of some famous book from Egypt, China, Japan, Judea, or Persia. The work is done by good scholars, and several at least of the introductions are of considerable interest. Earlier volumes included the wisdom of India.

John Lane Co. has a new edition, after thirty-eight years, of Frederika Macdonald's "Iliad of the East," with the illustrations by J. Lockwood Kipling, which will serve to renew interest in a clever and popular abridgement of the huge epic Rāmāyana. The book makes no pretensions to learning, and is professedly put together from Fauche's French version of the Sanskrit, yet, even after such a profession, it is fair to grumble a little at the careless use of diacritical marks in transliteration. Why should the poem be Ramayāna on the title page, Ramāyana in the introduction, and Rāmāyana (which is right) in the notes? However, the story's the thing, and the tale of Rāma and his bride, their forest wanderings, and the fight with Rāvana, is presented in a way to attract the hasty English reader. The introduction argues, successfully, we think, that modern sentiment is really in many ways closer to the romanticism of India than to that of the European middle ages.

The second half of Redhouse's translation of the "History of the Resuli Dynasty," by El-Khazreji, is edited for the trustees of the Gibb Memorial by E. G. Browne, R. A. Nicholson, and A. Rogers (Leyden: Brill; London: Luzac & Co.). This part, like the first, abounds in anecdotes illustrative of Moslem life in Yemen in the fourteenth century, a period otherwise little known. Exceptions have been taken to the translation as well as to the chief editor's choice of this particular work, and Mr. Browne here defends his action. Certainly if El-Khazreji's History is not the best work for the Gibb Memorial, it is nevertheless valuable; and if Redhouse's translation is not without faults, it yet gives the sense of the original fairly well. An index of proper names and other things is added.

Arabic scholars will welcome the publication of the Arabic text of Yaqut's "Dictionary of Learned Men," by the trustees of the Gibb Memorial, under the competent editorship of Prof. D. S. Margoliouth. The first volume, containing part of the letter Alif (the names are arranged in alphabetical order), is based on a single Bodleian manuscript, the only manuscript of this volume known to exist. For the correction of the text the editor has had to depend on works used by Yaqut or works that borrowed from him. The proofs were read in part by the late Sheikh Al-Yaziji, G. Zaidan, and other well-known experts.

Dr. Israel Davidson's "Parody in Jewish Literature" (The Columbia University Press) is an extremely creditable bit of work. He has not only made an exhaustive study of the subject in all its ramifications, its beginnings in Talmudic literature, its development in the early middle ages, its alternate decline and revival in subsequent centuries to our day; but he has shown as well how attractive Hebrew writings may be from the literary point of view—a new line of inquiry to many. It will be a surprise to those who regard Hebrew as strictly a religious or theological study to learn, under Dr. Davidson's guidance, of the spread of the parody or burlesque from travesties of Talmud and Mishrah to caricatures of varying phases of Jewish thought and custom. Evidently there was an undercurrent of genial humor even in ages when residents of the Ghetto had little apparent cause for joyousness. The author devotes the first part of his work to the history of Jewish parody. In his second part he gives a detailed account of famous Jewish parodies. In addition, he publishes new texts of Provençal parodies. A full bibliography is given with a mass of critical notes.

President J. M. Thomas of Middlebury College, in his little book entitled "The Christian Faith and the Old Testament" (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), raises once more the question of the value of the Old Testament to Christianity. The allegorical method of interpretation which made the Old Testament mean what it does not mean, and which put the Old and the New Testament on the same level of authority, has been superseded by the historical method. In this change of method, a change of values arises. The religious value of the Old Testament rests no longer in the words as such, but in the men of faith, whose progress in religion is recorded in that ancient literature. The accepted results of modern criticism and the sketch of the progress of religion from Deborah to Amos, are both admirably presented. Dr. Thomas will succeed, in our judgment, in stirring up in his readers the desire to study the Old Testament with intelligent appreciation.

In his "Cities of St. Paul" (A. C. Armstrong & Son), Sir William M. Ramsay states his latest opinions touching the cities of Eastern Asia Minor associated with the name of Paul—Tarsus, Antioch, Iconium, Derbe, and Lystra. The author directs the attention from Paul the theologian to Paul the philosopher, the one in whom "for the first time since Aristotle, Greek philosophy made a real step forward." In discussing the activity of Paul, Ramsay postulates a distinct philosophy of history, which is stated thus: (1) the divine alone is real; all else is error; (2) a society or a nation is progressive in so far as it hears the divine voice; all else is degeneration; (3) all men and every human society can hear the divine voice; but they must coöperate ere the communication can take place (p. 12, ff.). While Ramsay admits that Paul's view is not inconsistent with the best thought of the Hebrew prophets, he contends that such a view "could not have been thought out in the form which Paul gave it without a training in Greek philosophy." Readers who hold that Paul is more Jew than Greek, more prophet than philosopher, and who believe that Paul gets his world-view from Daniel and the Jewish apocalyptists and his broad-minded universalism from his religious experience of the divine power which he calls Christ or Spirit, will be stirred if not convinced by this important work. The book itself is well furnished with maps, plates, and cuts, but unfortunately has no index.

A short time ago, Dr. R. H. Charles published an English translation with full introduction and commentary of the interesting ethical document known as The Testaments of the Twelve Patriarchs, a document written in Hebrew about 100 B. C., but now existing, with Christian interpolations, in various translations—Greek, Armenian, and Slavonic. In the present volume ("The Greek Versions of the Testaments of the Twelve Patriarchs," Henry Frowde), which closely follows the former volume, the scholar has a Greek text which definitely supersedes that of Sinker, and a practically exhaustive *apparatus criticus* of all the versions. No student of the ethics of the New Testament can afford to neglect this inspiring voice from Late Judaism. A sentence or two from Charles's translation of the sixth chapter of Gad may be quoted to indicate the value of the Testaments:

> Love ye one another from the heart; and if a man sin against thee, speak peaceably to him, and in thy soul hold not guile; and if he repent and confess, forgive him. But if he deny it, do not get into a passion with him, lest catching the poison from thee he take to swearing, and so thou sin doubly. And though he deny it, and yet have a sense of shame when reproved, give over reproving him. For he who denieth may repent so as not again to wrong thee; yea, he may also honour thee, and be at peace with thee. But if he be shameless and persisteth in his wrongdoing, even so forgive him from the heart and leave to God the avenging.

The twelfth *Lieferung* of Prof. Morris Jastrow's "Die Religion Babyloniens und Assyriens" (Giessen: Alfred Töpelmann), containing part of Chapter xx., "Vorzeichen und Deutungslehre," corresponding to Chapter xix. of the original, brings this translation within sight of completion. There is to be one more part, to which will be added an excursus by Dr. Husing on the "Gods of Elam," a full bibliography and indexes. The author also promises a "Bildermappe," containing temple

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plans, representations of typical gods and demons, religious and mythological scenes from seal cylinders and votive objects, processions of the gods, sacrificial scenes, and the like. The complete translation, exclusive of the cosmology, etc. (that is, the last seven chapters of the original), which is reserved for separate treatment later, will be about twice as large as the original work, published ten years ago. The next step, apparently, will be the translation of this translation back into English.

"Philotesia: Paul Kleinert zum 70. Geburtstag dargebracht" (Berlin: Trowitsch & Sohn), is a collection of technical articles by associates and friends of Professor Kleinert of Berlin. Among the contributors are Adolf Harnack, Hermann Diels, Karl Holl, Paul Gennrich, Emil Kautzsch, Ernst Breest, Eduard Simons, Daniel von der Heydt, Emil Meyer, Eduard von der Goltz, Rudolf Frankh, Hans Kessler, Julius Kaftan, Karl Müller, Graf Baudissin, Carl Schmidt, Max Lenz, and Emil Seckel. The topics include Oriental, Jewish, and Greek religion, Christian antiquities, the Reformation, earlier Protestantism, and modern church problems. The many-sided character of Kleinert explains the exceptional range of topics.

As the twenty-first part of the well-known series, Porta Linguarum Orientalium (Berlin: Reuther & Reichard), Prof. C. Brockelmann of Königsberg will publish a "Kurze vergleichende Grammatik der semitischen Sprachen." This work is intended to take the place of Prof. H. Zimmern's "Grammatik," now out of print and not to be republished. The larger work of Dr. Brockelmann on the same subject, known as the "Grundriss," of which a part has been published, will soon be completed. It will contain in full the scientific processes, while the "Kurze Grammatik" will give the results in a manner especially adapted for students.

"Einsames Land: Erzählungen und Stimmungsbilder," by Dr. Wilhelm Münz (Frankfurt a. M.: J. Kauffmann), contains an orthodox Jewish rabbi's thoughts on the practical religious questions of the time.

"An des Daseins Grenzen: Geschichten und Phantasien," by Max Haushofer (Munich: C. H. Beck), is a posthumous collection of speculations on the problems of the great beyond by one who felt the presence of death and was endowed with an exceptionally brilliant imagination.

The fourth annual issue, for 1907, of A. Hortzschansky's "Bibliographie des Bibliotheks- und Buchwesens" (Leipzig: Harrassowitz) contains about 150 titles more than the issue for the previous year, in spite of the omission of not a few periodical bibliographies of special subjects. This omission would seem to be a mistake, especially if taken in connection with the enumeration of such fugitive material as annual reports and finding lists of American public libraries.

In "Luther, wie er lebte und wirkte," by Hugo L. Braune (Leipzig: M. Heinsius Nachfolger), the leading feature is the abundance of fine illustrations; the text is little more than an explanation of the pictures.

"Luther et le Luthéranisme," a work by the Catholic professor of theology in Moulins, Dr. L. Cristiani, is a criticism of the German reformer and his work. It appears with a preface by Dr. Baudrillart, rector of the Institut Catholique of Paris. Special chapters are devoted to "La Grossièreté de langage de Luther" and "Luther et le démon." (Paris: Bloud & Cie.)

To the student of contemporary history the book by Eug. Réveillaud, "La Séparation des églises et de l'état" (Paris: Fischbacher), offers a great variety of useful material somewhat loosely knit together but presented in an interesting fashion by a practised journalist and politician. The author, a member of the French Chamber, played a distinguished part in the debate on the Separation law. His book contains his own and many other speeches, with a running commentary on the debate. The first part gives an historical résumé of the relations between Church and State in France; the third part, the text of the laws of 1905 and 1907, with the ministerial circulars that their enforcement necessitated.

The Danish Academy of Sciences has published the "Anecdota Cartographica Septentrionalia," edited by Axel Anthon Bjornbo and Carl S. Petersen (32 folio pages of text with 11 charts, 3 colored). This is a collection of rare charts dating back to the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. They are mostly maps of portions of Scandinavian lands, but the collection includes also a chart of North America, 1636, by Joris Carolus.

The present copyright law in Russia, which is based on governmental decrees of 1828, 1830, and 1857, is being thoroughly revised by the Duma. The new provisions aim chiefly at the protection of foreign authors, whose productions are translated into Russian. Authorship rights for foreigners are to extend over a period of fifty years.

The Société Préhistorique de France will hold its fourth annual congress at Chambéry (Savoy) the last week in August. Three days will be devoted to business meetings and visits to the museums, private collections, and monuments of Chambéry. The rest of the week will be spent in scientific excursions to Aix-les-Bains, the town and lake of Annecy, the lake of Bourget, which will be dredged for prehistoric relics, the lake of Aiguebelette, the sculptured rocks of Mont Cenis, and the Tarentaise valley. Among the topics discussed will be the "Age of the Lake-Dwellers," "The Relation between the Palæolithic Period in Savoy and Glacier Distribution," "The Neolithic Period in the Alps," and "Prehistoric Sculptured Rocks."

The International Historical Congress of the War of Independence and the Period (1807-1815) will take place at Saragossa October 14 to 20. According to present arrangements, it will be divided into six sections, as follows: (1) Political history of the Peninsula (1807-1815); (2) military history; (3) internal history; (4) relations with the history of foreign countries; (5) studies relating to the siege of Saragossa; (6) bibliography, memoirs, biography, correspondence, unedited material. All persons may take part by sending their address and fifteen pesetas to the president of the committee of organization, Bureau de l'Exposition Hispano-Française, Saragossa.

The Rev. George Edmands Merrill, president of Colgate University since 1899, died June 11. Born in Charlestown, Mass., in 1846, he was graduated from Harvard in 1869, and from the Newton Theological Institution in 1872. After holding pastorates in Baptist churches in Springfield, Mass.; Salem, Mass.; Colorado Springs, and Newton, Mass., he was called to Colgate. He was author of "The Story of the Manuscripts" (1881), "Crusaders and Captives" (1890), "The Reasonable Christ" (1893), and "The Parchments of the Faith" (1895). He also wrote on the Song of Solomon in the "American Commentary" on the Old Testament.

William Leete Stone, a voluminous writer on subjects in American local history, died in Mount Vernon June 11, at the age of seventy-three. After graduation from Brown in 1858, he was admitted to the bar, but he gave a large amount of his time to business and to writing. Among his books are "The Life and Times of Sir William Johnson," "Revolutionary Letters," "Pausch's Journal," "Burgoyne's Campaign and the St. Leger Expedition," "Life and Military Journals of Major-General Riedesel," "Letters and Journals of Mrs. Riedesel," "History of New York City," "Reminiscences of Saratoga and Ballston," "The Saratoga Battle Grounds," "Ballads of the Burgoyne Campaign," "Sir John Johnson's Orderly Book," "Historical Guide Book to Saratoga Springs and Vicinity," "The Starin Genealogy," "The Stone Genealogy," "Life of Governor George Clinton," and "Life of John Hay." He also contributed largely to Appleton's "Cyclopædia" and Appleton's "Cyclopædia of American Biography."

The Rev. George Clark Hutton, D.D., at one time joint-principal of the United Free Church of Scotland College, Glasgow, has just died at the age of eighty-three. He has to his credit a large number of theological works, including "Divine Truth and the Fact of Its Self-Revelation," "The Rationale of Prayer," "The Ascent of Man," and "The Case for Disestablishment in Scotland."

The Parsi community of India has lost one of its most distinguished scholars by the death at Poona, at the age of seventy-five, of Shams-ul-Ulma Sirdar Khan Bahadur Dastug Hosang Jamsap, Ph.D., high priest of the Parsis of the Deccan, who traced his descent from an unbroken line of the Zoroastrian priesthood through many centuries. According to the London *Times*, he was familiar with at least a dozen languages, in addition to Gujerati, his mother tongue, and at the time of the mutiny his mastery of Persian and Urdu was of great assistance to the British authorities in the discovery and interpretation of treasonable correspondence. But it was in realm of Zoroastrian research that he was most distinguished. He worked with the well-known Avesta scholars, Drs. Haug and West, devoting himself specially to the second of the two languages of the Zoroastrian scriptures, Pahlavi. A difficult and obscure work in that language, known as "Shikund Gumani," which he next edited, was published by the Clarendon Press, under the supervision of Dr. West. The Bombay government, recognizing the importance of such research to the Parsis of Western India, bore the cost of the publication of this

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and kindred works. The Parsis of the Deccan held their chief spiritual guide in great veneration, and quite recently those of Poona published an ornate volume of his sermons and addresses.

LEADERS OF THE CONFEDERACY.

Jefferson Davis. By William E. Dodd. [American Crisis Biographies.] Pp. 396. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25 net.

Alexander H. Stephens. By Louis Pendleton. [American Crisis Biographies.] Pp. 406. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25 net.

Judah P. Benjamin. By Pierce Butler. [American Crisis Biographies.] Pp. 459. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25 net.

Lee and His Cause: or the Why and the How of the War Between the States. By John R. Deering. Pp. 183. New York and Washington: The Neale Publishing Company. $1.50.

At last Jefferson Davis, Alexander H. Stephens, and Judah P. Benjamin, the three leading statesmen of the Confederacy, have received adequate treatment as historical characters. Benjamin, aside from his record in the United States Senate and in the Confederate diplomatic correspondence, might almost have been called a mere tradition. Both Davis and Stephens were to nearly all elderly Southerners, objects of excessive admiration or of excessive dislike; but neither was well known in the North. The credit for this rehabilitation belongs to three young Southerners: Mr. Pendleton, a Georgian, and Messrs. Dodd and Butler, college professors in Virginia and Louisiana, respectively. Their tasks were very different, and they have not shown equal research and skill; yet each has manifested such wholesome sympathy with his subject while preserving such independence of thought and frankness of expression as to make his performance pleasing and highly valuable.

No open-minded person can read Professor Dodd's account of Jefferson Davis and continue to doubt that this famous Mississippian was first of all a thoughtful gentleman of quality; a clear-headed, upright, industrious, and progressive Secretary of War; a dignified, able, and thoroughly honorable, although highly ambitious Senator; and a President whose unflagging zeal and powers of leadership and administration proved him to be, if far from perfect, still the best available head of the Confederacy. And even in his weaknesses he was an almost perfect exponent of the people and the cause he served. Davis can hardly be called a thoroughly great and lovable character, like Lee or Lincoln; but as he had in him some of the stuff of which heroes are made, he will always inspire interest and respect. With equal clearness and force, Professor Dodd has destroyed Davis's constant assertion after 1860, and the common Southern belief, that he was a conservative. Davis's natural poise and excellent manners forbade that his methods should be those of the "fire-eaters." But the policies he advocated, the demands he made for the protection and strengthening of slavery were exactly in harmony with the main aims of Rhett, Yancey, and the other furies. With Davis as a running illustration, Professor Dodd shows the growth of the Southern infatuation for slavery, which, in the Southwest, advanced to the verge of an open and enthusiastic demand for the renewal of the African slave-trade. In Professor Dodd, however, Davis has a stout defender whenever he merits one, as he often does; and whether the biographer praises, defends, or criticises, he displays that most important but really rare quality in an historian—a passion for truth and a certain mental delight in compelling its acceptance.

Notwithstanding his superior qualities Professor Dodd must take heed lest his errors furnish hostile critics with weapons for his own destruction. He writes of Andrew Johnson as a shoemaker, instead of a tailor; of "Trescott of the War Department" when he means Trescot, Assistant Secretary of State; and of "Stonewall" Jackson's corps, instead of brigade, at the first Bull Run. South Carolina, according to Professor Dodd (p. 209), was richer than Massachusetts in 1860, although, in fact Massachusetts was then nearly twice as rich as South Carolina, after counting four-sevenths of South Carolina's whole population, the slaves, as wealth, when the Massachusetts laborers were not so counted. Then we are told (p. 321) that the Confederate cause might and ought to have been saved by rushing cotton to Europe in 1861; but the policy in which the Southern leaders were perhaps most nearly unanimous until 1863, and the one without which secession would probably not have been risked was, that by locking up the cotton in the South, England and France would have to come and break the blockade and help end the war. The Confederacy had no ships; and until the blockade became substantially effective, except against small ocean greyhounds, the price of cotton was not sufficient to tempt English ships of a kind that could both carry much cotton and enjoy a reasonable prospect of escaping confiscation. Accordingly this is a mere academic theory, which originated with the least practical of the Confederate chiefs. Professor Dodd asserts (p. 219) that there was a Confederate law making the African slave trade piracy. The Confederate Constitution did indeed forbid that trade, but it left to the Confederate Congress the task of making that prohibition effective by laws and penalties. The Congress did nothing whatever.

Unless you have been in scraggy Crawfordsville, looked over that plain house called Liberty Hall, with its unimpressive surroundings (which were once thought to resemble an academic grove), have seen the wretched roads and the many half-barren hillsides of that region, and have visited the abandoned and never fertile farm known as "the Stephens homestead," with a little cemetery in which are buried Stephens's kindred, mostly of the humblest class, you cannot fully appreciate either the resources or the limitations of the Vice-President of the Confederacy. Stephens's lucid speeches and morbid letters may seem to have left nothing untold; but they alone do not fully explain why, in a certain sense, everybody loved "Alec," or why he was also bitterly hated. How did it happen that at times he had more mental power than the ablest, and yet at other times was the weakest of the weak? By nature conservative, why did he crave political power and admiration at any honorable price? Although amply endowed with nominal courage and independence, why did he so often run with the crowd or pout in semi-solitude? We suspect that Mr. Pendleton is a martyr to circumstances. To solve the many enigmas of Stephens's life it would be necessary to study the sage of Liberty Hall as a physical weakling among giants, and a mental giant among weaklings, to analyze the Southern mind as it showed itself in different grades of society, and to expound the social and political dynamics of slavery. It should be remembered that the South does not relish criticism, especially when analytical. Our biographer may well have asked, with the poet:

> Had I words to complete it,
> Who'd read it, or who'd understand?

He has, at least, confined his narrative to an account of Stephens's main acts, without making a clear perspective or attempting a philosophical explanation of either the man or the epoch. Perhaps the most that the South would welcome as yet would be a mild and candid description of Stephens's acts, wise or unwise, his manners, and the qualities of his heart. Without adding anything valuable to the printed materials, Mr. Pendleton has given a good popular account of this pathetic career.

Few American public men have been so prominent in their inconsistency and unsteadiness as Stephens. Like a firefly, he was all light one moment and all darkness at another. Perhaps he will be longest remembered for his bold opposition to the Mexican war, his insistence that that war was not prompted by the interests of slavery, and then his equally bold insistence that slavery should fully share the spoils; for his speech at Augusta, 1859, telling the South that the advantages gained up to that time would be fruitless without "an increase of African slaves from abroad," because "it requires people of the African race to make slave States"; for his argument against secession, which was soon followed by great zeal in defence of secession; and for nearly four years of irrational, bitter, and very harmful opposition to Davis and to measures absolutely necessary to Confederate success. Of the many great handicaps of the Confederacy he was, says the latest biographer, the greatest. Ignoring the eternally true maxim, *inter arma silent leges*, he wailed, plotted, and caused serious embarrassments because, in a time of violent revolution, the letter of the Constitution was not strictly followed. On these and other subjects Mr. Pendleton has commented with a frankness that is admirable, although it will be certain to arouse unjust criticism. Yet there is nothing severe in Mr. Pendleton's comments, and he generously praises Stephens's numerous personal virtues.

In one chapter Mr. Pendleton seems to have felt entirely free to choose his own course. There he makes a long and interesting review of "Seventy Years of Disunion"—the different occasions when nullification or secession were conspicuously threatened. Not even here, however, does he impress one as a ripe student of history. Most of his chapters are meandering, conspicuously journalistic, and fail to show familiarity with the different phases of the

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larger questions. Professor Dodd preempted much of the general history; but Mr. Pendleton has not improved his opportunities. Surprisingly few details have ever been written about the Confederate Senate, over which it was Stephens's duty to preside; yet Mr. Pendleton has not vouchsafed to us more than a few commonplace remarks about it, and the words "Senate" and "Congress" are not even indexed.

What was most needed in relation to the smiling, silver-voiced, and facile Benjamin —unquestionably the most talented man in political life in the Confederacy, and Davis's closest friend and chief support in council—Mr. Butler has supplied. Long ago Benjamin's own relatives had become convinced that the thoroughness with which he had destroyed his papers and letters would make a satisfactory biography of him impossible. Yet Mr. Butler, from a thousand out-of-the-way places, has dug up the needed material and made an important and original contribution to history by presenting a practically complete record of this man, who was extraordinarily successful in law and in politics in America and in law in England. Benjamin's political career in Louisiana has been traced by a remarkable use of the newspapers of the time. The method is not new, but the results are above praise. At each period of Benjamin's life the biographer has found nearly all that was needed. Benjamin's letters describing his adventures by land and sea between the downfall of the Confederacy and his arrival in England, and the account of his second rise and more wonderful success, would seem like highly-colored romance if we did not know that they record facts. There was at different times a strong suspicion that Benjamin's honesty was not so unfailing as his smile and his readiness for any fortune. Mr. Butler makes no sophistical pleas. He admits, and even describes, the rather common suspicions, but he does not go to a conclusion, either one way or another, any further than the plain evidence warrants.

How did it happen that Benjamin freed himself from the obsession about "King Cotton," and, as a last resort to save the Confederate cause, inspired the policy of enlisting slaves as soldiers, and finally offered to surrender slavery itself for recognition? The reason is that he alone of all the prominent Confederates was a cosmopolitan. Like nearly every Northerner who settled in the South, he did as the Southerners did. This brilliant and not too scrupulous English Jew, who was partly educated at the North, who was the foremost lawyer in Louisiana, who was counted as one of the ablest and most agreeable Senators, and who tried planting on a large scale, had kept his mind active by reading literature and by an annual trip to Europe. Such a man could not long cherish what his biographer calls the "arrogant assumption that the old world must come and make suit to the Confederacy for its friendship." He, unlike all but a few, knew and enjoyed other civilizations, and could not be content with slavery-and-cotton provincialism.

Deering's so-called "Lee and His Cause" perfectly illustrates that old witticism that the Holy Roman Empire was thus styled because it was not holy, nor Roman, nor an empire. Yet perhaps this little volume of Memorial Day sentiment and of countless purple patches made up of fancy and fact, is not entirely worthless. It is so different from the foregoing biographies that it at least serves to point a contrast between the sentimental and imaginative and the realistic and historical methods of representing the past.

CURRENT FICTION.

King Spruce. By Holman Day. New York: Harper & Bros.

A story of the Maine woods and the lumber interests needs to be unusual if it is to attract attention, since for these many years the logs have been floating down into print on floods of ink. Mr. Day's story stands up like a mountain peak among lesser fellows for its large proportions and virile treatment. The word power applies in full meaning to his novel, which has the dual strength of the hills and of humanity. Rough, often cruel, hills they are, and rough, contentious, humanity. But the petty is unknown. Man fights his fights, lives his isolated months in the wilderness, recognizes, whether for keeping or for transgressing, the wood's code, and helps or injures in large ways. One must not be squeamish as to scenes of violence. Nature's noblemen are forced to adopt nature's methods; nature's ignoblemen even more.

Added to the universal interests there is a contemporaneous situation. The timber baron aspires to be elected Governor of Maine. He is the exponent of all that is Philistine in lumbering and greedy in politics; while the young hero aims at intelligent forestry and enlightened legislation.

The Under Groove. By Arthur Stringer. New York: The McClure Co.

There are two bits of wisdom which the world is fond of bestowing on would-be authors. The young dramatist is told that the first ten minutes of his first act must be twaddle, because people are then taking their wraps off and banging seats. The young story writer is told that there is no market for volumes of short stories. The effect on the dramatist is that he meets the demand, and turns out twaddle. The effect on the writer of stories is that he publishes volumes of short tales which are bound together by the personality of a single dominating character, detector of crime, criminal, or mere dispenser of philosophy in dialect. From the number of such books published in the last few years, it is to be supposed that the device is a successful one, and that a volume of short stories with a single hero sells more easily than a collection of unrelated tales. But if it is true that such books sell more easily, it is also true that they read with increasing difficulty after the third or fourth chapter. Even Arthur Stringer, in his latest volume, has not escaped the pitfall of monotony, and this in spite of a style and method incomparably superior to the average level of craftsmanship that is brought to the writing of stories dealing with crime and Byronic criminals. In themselves the eight stories, with one or two exceptions, would make good reading; the first story is excellent. But the author has intensified the element of sameness by resorting in them all to that familiar device of the electric wire which, whether for telegraph, telephone, or power current, he has employed in earlier books.

Matthew Porter. By Gamaliel Bradford, jr. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

The theme of contemporary American politics continues to tempt our novel-makers, for the most part in vain. Why is it, the patient reader must ask himself now and then, that fumbling and half-heartedness are the rule in such attempts? Why are these honest and epoch-making statesmen, who are created almost hourly for our edification, such practical nuisances and bores? And why are the eager ladies whom they instruct, or who instruct them, in the duties of citizenship so uniformly dummy-like in their Egerian rôle? Why does the whole affair so commonly impress one as having been made "out of whole cloth?" Perhaps the reader does not take his politics seriously enough; or is it that he takes his fiction too seriously?

Mr. Bradford is a close student, and, as it were, an accomplished amateur, of politics. His Matthew Porter is Democratic candidate for Governor in that grim Republican stronghold, Massachusetts. He is possessed of or by an idea upon which his campaign is founded. It is an idea of engaging simplicity, to the effect that more power should be vested in the Governor, and less in the Legislature. He proposes to introduce what is practically the English Cabinet system into State politics, thereby enabling the Governor to direct legislation as well as to administer the laws. He is supposed to have immense personal force (to tell the truth, it does not leap from the page) by means of which he not only sways the crowd, but dominates the corrupt and reluctant bosses of his party. His means are not always upon the high heroic plane that an American is entitled to expect of his imaginary statesmen—as witness the interview with one Rooney, in which the reform candidate remarks, "I'm not the kind to make promises and I won't go into office tied up in any way; but I'm not the man to forget my friends either. If I'm elected, there'll be something for those that have helped me—provided they behave themselves and deserve it." One hardly marvels that "this sounded more like politics as Rooney understood them," and one inclines to think Rooney hardly dealt with when his request for a bird in the hand is met by a virtual threat of blackmail. Rooney "behaves himself." Porter is nominated and finds himself pitted against a Back Bay villain of a Republican whom in due season he defeats at the polls. Here the story ends, the implication being that the man has no difficulty in governing as he has said he will govern. His programme is simple enough:

> Let the Governor go to the people and say, "Look here. You elected me to do a certain thing. Here's a troop of nobodies who get in the way and tell me I shan't do it because it doesn't suit them. What about this?"

But it is a pity we do not see the Governor in action. For the rest, the narrative is cumbered with many irrelevant per-

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sons, and the inevitable love-theme is a wearisome affair.

The Postscript. By Eleanor Stuart. New York: The McClure Co.

That style of graceful, if studied, nonchalance conveyed from its Latin sources and made popular of late by Mrs. Wharton and others, continues to extend its mild influence. Miss Stuart shows herself mistress of it in the present little volume, the stuff of which is slight enough, but the way excellently contrived. The story-teller in this kind proceeds as an adept; finesse is the watchword. Things are to be said simply, though not commonly; but things in themselves are understood to be by no means simple. Saliency is to be given to subtilty in dealing with all data recorded, from the lifting of a lady's eyebrow to the after-worry of a homicide. It must be said that Miss Stuart's elegance has now and then the effect of strain. Her phrasing is almost too uniformly felicitous. It is well to read, "Peacocks spread the lazy vanity of their tails, and the sun made jewels in them like a guest dispensing largess at parting"; but the manner does not always fit the matter; all her little fishes of description cultivate the deep-water accent. At times the effect is frankly ludicrous. She comes upon a portrait of her dead husband in his youth. He wears a queer hat, but looks like a good deal of a man:

> Under obsolete headgear peered fearless Sandro's forces of the soul. This disciplined character—even in a photograph—smote the year 1888 with eternal verity, elemental force, and his peculiar energy which succumbed only to death.

This sounds like nonsense of a particularly irritating sort; it should be recorded at once that the writer seldom sinks to that level of unnecessary portentousness. The story is the not unfamiliar one of the young widow whose adoring memory of her husband is threatened with blight by the slander of an interested person. Her faith is restored, and, in her new sense of spiritual possession, the old sense of physical loss well-nigh ceases to be. The heroine is a rather commonplace little person, and one feels that the writer somewhat exaggerates the importance of her experience. Such a type, to acquire meaning, needs the sublimation of an interpreting art, and will by no means be put off with decorations of a fashionable artifice, however cleverly applied.

In the Dead of Night. By John T. McIntyre. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

For those who love a real mystery with a fortune of $200,000,000 at stake, with a grinning Chinese villain, three murders in a night, lurid scenes in Mott Street, a piratical dash on the East River, a lovely heroine, and a master hero just landed out of the stoke hole of a steamer which brings him from a South American revolution—for such as these is "In the Dead of Night." Mr. McIntyre has been unusually successful in ravelling up his mystery, but, as too commonly happens in these stories, the solution is an anticlimax. Too much that excited our curiosity is found to have been the mere work of chance; the dénouement is huddled up and arbitrary. Withal, we class ourselves unshamedly with those who take pleasure in such productions.

The Clutch of Circumstance. By James Barnes. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

In "Wonderland" this would be called a portmanteau story. Not content with the motive of lovers parted by slander and fraud, incriminating photographs and damning silences, the author gives us the drug-taking motive, the flippant other woman, the labor strike, the dynamited dam, then the murder and mystery motive, the familiar trial scene, the death-bed confession; and he finally lets us gayly cheer the bride. It is unquestionably commodious and fairly interesting. But the portmanteau story to be perfect must be packed solidly or on the journey the contents fall to hitching and fidgetting.

The persistent use of "will" for "shall" is not original with Mr. Barnes. Unfortunately he has abundant precedent. But let him look to his guides. Simplified grammar is, we trust, still in abeyance.

In Korea with Marquis Ito. By George Trumbull Ladd. New York. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50 net.

This book carries its contents in epitome on the cover. Stamped in gold is the emblem of embattled Japan and her war-flag of sun and broad rays, obscuring the Korean symbol of cosmic dualism. The rising sun makes nearly invisible the lesser play of light and shadow. The story as stamped and printed is one of fact. Whether the symbol presages ultimate truth the oracle does not yet whisper; for Japan has not yet annexed Korea.

For the serious student Dr. Ladd's book by no means supersedes the works of Dallet, Hulbert, and others who have studied Korea in the perspective of history, language, and literature. It is, however, a clear and timely statement of personal impressions, unusual opportunities and experiences, and strong convictions. Its general tone is that of an advocate, even to partisanship. Yet the report corresponds closely with the knowledge of those who in the cool atmosphere of the study and from the native literature, have learned the truth about Korean character and history. Here is a nation, geographically unfortunate in being set between the two opposing nations of China and Japan. Under the crucial test of contact with Occidental civilization and adjustment to the new conditions, Korea has made a tragic failure. Professor Ladd's picture is a sad one. Instead of giving the people honest government and popular education—the cheap defence of nations—the rulers of Korea resorted to cunning and treachery. To play off one set of foreigners against another has been their idea of statesmanship. The real council board has been in the harem and eunuchs have been advisers of state. Patriotism has rarely risen above the idea of self-aggrandizement and personal plunder. When the native assassin (since this book was published) wounded Korea on American soil by shooting Stevens, he removed from earth the man who, under every scheme of plunder, whether ostensibly Japanese, American, or otherwise foreign, sought and found a native scoundrel.

It is perfectly true that while Japan was wrestling with Russia, hundreds of disreputable Japanese were in Korea as bullies, rowdies, and even as friends. One must not judge Japan by her soldiers only, who are under the discipline of a thousand years of knightly tradition. Indeed, as a people, the Japanese seem almost to possess a dual personality. Outside the canons of Bushido, there is no such general code of ideals or practice restraining the city rough, the rustic clown, and other rascals who are sufficiently numerous in Japan and who, when abroad, match Korean cunning and cowardice with brutal violence. Such undeniable facts have furnished men like F. A. McKenzie in his books "The Tragedy of Korea" and "The Unveiled East," the editor of the *Daily News* published in Seoul, and Homer B. Hulbert a basis for their vehemence of statement regarding Japanese cruelty. To each of these writers Dr. Ladd pays his respects. The coming of Marquis, now Prince, Ito to Korea, was the signal for the arrest and deportation of scores of these rascals who so violently misrepresented Japan's purpose and policy in Korea. As soon as peace allowed, Japan's chief constructive statesman was sent to begin what may be his crowning work in making Korea a modern state. Holding the military party in Tokio at bay, Ito, who as early as 1863 threw down the torch and sword to follow the slower, but surer methods of the civilian, now insists that Korea shall not be annexed but, though deprived of her power of intrigue, shall work out her own salvation by uplifting her people and developing the country's resources.

This is the burden of Dr. Ladd's book. With wealth of example, argument, and transcripts from varied experience, he sets forth his faith with extraordinary clearness. He is also courageous. Known as a lifelong friend of Christian missions, he yet lays open, with a surgeon's knife, the political motives that underlie much of the emotional Christianity of the converts and points out the unwisdom of some missionaries who seem to imagine that the kingdom of God is of this world. In one respect Professor Ladd's strong partisanship is at fault. The judicially-minded man, who remembers the days of incendiarism, assassination, and bloody turbulence of feudal Japan, cannot go with Dr. Ladd in his apparent ascription of current performances of bitterly disappointed patriots to the permanent characteristics of Korean people. Indeed to one who saw the real Japan of the seventies there is nothing discouraging in the future of the Koreans. Japan seemed once as hopelessly divided as Korea to-day.

The author's text is supplemented by protocols and treaties and is indexed and illustrated.

Critical Essays of the Seventeenth Century. Edited by J. E. Spingarn. Vols. I. and II. New York: Henry Frowde. $1.75 each.

When Professor Spingarn has produced his third volume of the present work, we shall have, beginning with Gregory Smith's "Elizabethan Critical Essays" and ending with W. P. Ker's "Essays of Dryden," a pretty complete library of our critical literature through the seventeenth century. To these may be added D. Nichol Smith's "Eighteenth-Century Essays on Shakespeare," which gives the heart of the crit-

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ical debate of that age, and brings us down to the voluminous literature of the romantic revival.

All these works are notable for their excellent editing, and not least notable the two volumes just published. As for the essays, letters, and poems reprinted, it can only be said that they cover practically the whole field of seventeenth-century literary discussion, with the exception of Dryden's work, which Professor Spingarn has wisely left to be consulted in Professor Ker's edition. No one familiar with the age need be told that much of this writing has historic interest only, and that even in this respect it is for the most part disappointing. Yet there are a few of these essays that still challenge attention. First of all comes the selection from Bacon's "Advancement of Learning," with its biting analysis of the "three distempers . . . of learning: The first, fantastical learning: the second, contentious learning; and the last, delicate learning; vain imaginations, vain altercations, and vain affectations." It would not be difficult to fit the threefold warning of Bacon to the writers and scholars of to-day. Jonson's "Timber" also is full of grave discourse. His influence as champion of classic tradition, stalwart in theory but in practice often unfaithful, has never been properly worked out; perhaps we shall have such a study in the new edition of his works promised by the Clarendon Press. In the "Answer to Davenant" Thomas Hobbes gives his famous division of poetry into heroic, scommatic, and pastoral according to "the three regions of mankind, court, city, and country." Here, as in all his writings, he proves himself one of the great and undeceived knowers of human nature. Next in interest are Thomas Rymer's "Tragedies of the Last Age" and "Short View of Tragedy," unfortunately too long to be included in full. Macaulay thought Rymer "the worst critic that ever lived." We are not so sure about that. It is certain that Rymer had an abnormally keen scent for incongruities and absurdities; and his general condemnation of the Elizabethan drama for its defiance of simple structure and of moral consistency is as right from one point of view as from another is Lamb's ecstasy over the passionate beauty of individual scenes.

But withal the bulk of these two volumes is not only poor in substance, but so confused in aim that only a trained scholar is able to follow its lines of real development. If so presumptuous a generalization were permitted, one might find a curious alternation of unity and dispersion in the last four centuries. In the sixteenth century there predominates the single idea of a return to nature, as exemplified in the past—to the classics in the southern humanism, to the early fathers in the northern Reformation. The seventeenth century is confused by cross-currents of opinion, out of which gradually emerges the eighteenth-century conception of nature and reason—they are one—as the basis of philosophy, religion, political rights, and taste. Again, the nineteenth is broken up by uncertain tendencies pointing in every direction, from which there is apparently forming a conception of humanitarianism destined for a time to dominate every branch of philosophy. Whether so regular a scheme of contraction and expansion is fanciful or not, at least it is true that the critical literature represented in Professor Spingarn's volumes is filled with hints of half-digested ideas and marked by gropings in many directions. To such an extent does this prevail that, without the right key, a reader may flounder through treatise after treatise, and seem to get nowhere at all. The key is a knowledge of the contemporary and precedent critical writing of Italy and France. And here our editor, with his perhaps unique familiarity with this literature, comes valiantly to the rescue.

His Introduction is not easy, nor altogether agreeable, reading. There is a kind of bustling haste in its procedure, which might have been relieved by better composition, without sacrificing the ideas. It is, nevertheless, a highly valuable piece of work, showing in a single page more real grasp of the subject than Saintsbury's "History of Criticism" displays in a chapter. Here you will find the half-conscious hints of the English writers thrown into relief by comparison with the works of the Continent, so that what seemed a jumble of incoördinate and personal predilections takes the form of a large and almost continuous movement. These variously used terms of wit, humor, rules, judgment, fancy, nature, taste, reason, decorum, sense, profit, pleasure, become clear signposts on the way from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century. Take, for example, these few lines of Professor Spingarn's on the most elusive word in language, Nature:

> This is the key of the whole matter: the universe conceived as governed by law, with general human nature as a microcosm of this mechanical order on the one side, man's mere whim on the other. So Rymer distinguishes nature alike from romance (*i. e.*, "la vague Imagination") and from mere historic fact (*i. e.*, nature not réglée); and something of the same connotation still subsists in such phrases as "an unnatural mother" and the like. The century's outlook on life is summed up in a single critical term; no wonder then that the term should limit itself more and more to the specific interests of the age—to that social order which seemed the best safeguard against individual whim, and to the regulated life of cities—and that these should extend themselves in their turn until they seemed commensurate with nature itself. Civilized society was governed by the same order and law which seventeenth-century science was discovering in the physical universe, and the social code therefore represented the equivalent of "nature" in man's life. It was on this side that the Horatian "decorum" connected itself with "nature." When Johnson distinguished custom from nature, when Houdar de la Motte distinguished between the natural and the *naïf*, and Shenstone between natural and sentimental, they were not merely making distinctions of terms or adding to our knowledge; they were giving a new interpretation of life itself, such as the previous century would not accept. "Wenn Künstler von Natur sprechen," said Goethe, "subintelligieren sie immer die Idee, ohne sich's deutlich bewusst zu sein." The mechanical universe of the philosophy of Hobbes and Locke is thus the basis of seventeenth-century criticism; and the sense of mechanical order in nature was implicit in all thought. This was the highest justification of the Rules: they represent the order that is found in nature; they are "nature still, but nature methodized."

Such a paragraph shows the fulness of Professor Spingarn's learning and the somewhat crabbed condensation of his style. When his idea is once firmly grasped it affords a clue to unravel a large amount of misty talk about nature in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries as in the present. Some of the most interesting of the critical treaties are reserved for the third volume, which promises also a full index.

Personalism. By Borden Parker Bowne. Pp. xii., 326. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 net.

This volume comprises six lectures, delivered by Professor Bowne in 1907 at Northwestern University on the N. W. Harris Foundation. They expound the author's metaphysics of personalism, which he summarizes as follows:

> A world of persons with a Supreme Person at the head is the conception to which we come as the result of our critical reflections. The world of space objects which we call nature is no substantial existence by itself, and still less a self-running system apart from intelligence, but only the flowing expression and means of communication of those personal beings. It is throughout dependent, instrumental, and phenomenal (p. 277).

We are thus invited to believe that only these personal beings really exist, and that, as they communicate with one another, they project "on the great space and time screen"—which screen itself exists only through the mental construction of these persons—what we call nature. They project accordingly solar systems, mountains, lakes, and rivers, forests and the mineral resources of the earth, their own bodies and the bacteria and bacilli which at times infest their bodies. They impart to all these things the principles governing them, and thus make possible the various operations of nature, such as lightning and thunder, plague, pestilence, and famine. It is evident, therefore, that these persons have a good deal to communicate to one another, and that their remarks are often unkind and unseemly. Professor Bowne does not enumerate the instances of their communication with even the meagre details upon which we have ventured. If he had done so, it is difficult to believe that he would exhibit so much calm assurance about the truth of his metaphysics, or that he would think that his views must inevitably force themselves upon reflective inquiry. In the times of romanticism, when the imagination knew few restraints, and philosophers prized intellectual experiences of the dialectical kind above serious inquiry, Professor Bowne's metaphysics would doubtless have found a congenial atmosphere. But to-day, when the business of philosophy is not to create intellectual confusion in order to remove it afterwards through metaphysical theory, and when we are forced to think of persons, not as the creators of nature, but as parts of it whose great problem is that of self-maintenance, his metaphysics is likely to provoke amusement in many minds, rather than serious consideration.

Yet this kind of metaphysics is by no means uncommon at the present time. It maintains itself with conspicuous success in important seats of learning. The critic of it is hardly justified, therefore, in dismissing it simply because it amuses him. He is, doubtless, under obligation to discover the causes of its vitality. These are various, but two of them may be specified

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here because they are prominent in Professor Bowne's book.

Personalism and its kindred forms of metaphysics may not improperly be described as spiritual philosophies. They tend, because they make the things of the spirit prominent, to produce an emotional uplift which other philosophies usually fail to impart. We naturally demand of philosophy that it should afford consolation, but while naturalistic metaphysics is much more in harmony with our present scientific and industrial achievements, it has not generally succeeded in replenishing the springs of emotion. It finds it difficult, and, perhaps, inappropriate to conclude its speculations as Professor Bowne concludes his sixth lecture, with the quotation: "To as many as receive him, to them gives he power to become the sons of God." It presents itself, consequently, to many minds not simply as incomplete, but as essentially inadequate and misguided. Then, too, philosophy is strongly humanistic and can hardly fail to lay emphasis on personality. "Not to form abstract theories," says Professor Bowne, "but to formulate and understand this personal life of ours is the first and last duty of philosophy" (p. 318). That may be a restricted, but it is a noble conception of philosophy. It can be developed—witness Prof. George Santayana's "Life of Reason"—with beauty and intelligence without descending to the kind of metaphysics which "personalism" promulgates. But just because Professor Bowne emphasizes "this personal life of ours," he gives to his metaphysics the semblance of an interpretation of that life. Thus one cause of the vitality of his metaphyhics is found in its ministry of consolation and its regard for personality. Its genuine inadequacies are thereby obscured.

We find another cause in the fact that the metaphysics starts from the problem of knowledge and is controlled almost exclusively by that problem. The key to the interpretation of the world is sought not in what knowledge may reveal about nature, but in what knowledge may reveal about itself. Philosophy becomes thus detached from the natural and empirical checks which restrain the sciences and keep them from wandering so far away from nature that they can develop internal logical consistency at the expense of truth. Now to make the fact that we know, a problem, irrespective of the detailed consideration of the actual concrete information which we have about nature, has been a fashion current in philosophy since the time of John Locke. From the nature of the case it is a fashion whose devotees need not be at all concerned with those bodies of knowledge which are the results of scientific investigation. Philosophers of this type can find the deliverances of science entirely irrelevant to their philosophizing. It is natural, therefore, that they should feel a certain security about their own conclusions and impart to their reasonings an internal logical consistency which knows no external restraint. As science is not invoked for material, it need not be invoked for proof or refutation. The philosopher comes thus to believe that he has attained intellectual freedom and that he possesses profound insight.

Here is Professor Bowne's central argument:

> If the things themselves are really processes in space and time, they become anything articulate for us only through the ideas by which we fix the processes into a meaning. But, on the other hand, it is plain that these processes could not be grasped through these ideas unless they were really the expressions of ideas. It would be incredible that we should know things by ideas essentially unrelated to them; and as the ideas by which the things are constituted are independent of us, there must be a supreme intelligence behind the things which makes them the bearer or expression of the ideas. We cannot understand noises unless they are informed with thought, and they can be informed with thought only as there is a thinker at the other end. In the same way things can be grasped by thought only as they are the products of thought (pp. 118, 119).

A rushing river makes a noise. We may not ask Professor Bowne to produce the thinker at the other end, for his metaphysics is built up, not by considering that there are such things as rivers, but by considering the fact that we sometimes hear them.

Primitive Secret Societies: A study in Early Politics and Religion. By Hutton Webster, Pp. xiii, 237. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Professor Webster has hit upon an interesting and in some respects important topic of the miscellaneous science, if it be a science, known as folklore. Indeed, it was rumored some time ago that Dr. J. G. Frazer, who is the master of all who know in this out-of-the-way division of human learning, was devoting himself to the study of one branch at least of Professor Webster's theme—initiation ceremonies. It is obvious that these in their origin might throw light upon such diverse topics as the mass, freemasonry, the communion table, college "hazing," the Eleusinian mysteries, and indeed all the observances which guard exclusive portals. Mr. Webster has not even glanced at the wider issues of his subject. He keeps in a business-like manner to his theme and collects from the more or less familiar sources the practices relating to the societies within the clan and within the tribe from which some sections are excluded either by age or sex or other disqualification.

His starting point is the separation of sexes in the "men's house" found throughout Polynesia and even elsewhere. Adopting A. Crawley's ingenious view of the sexual origin of this separation in his "Mystic Rose," Professor Webster treats the "men's house" as the outcome of what he terms the puberty institution; and he deals with the secret rites, the training of the novice, and the power of the elders. All observers are agreed that the training the young savage receives on passing from boyhood to manhood is of the greatest possible value, and that it would be well if more civilized youths were equally drilled in obedience, in self-restraint, and in knowledge of the proper attitude toward the sex problem. These portions of the book are filled with curious and interesting details which lighten Professor Webster's somewhat wooden treatment with vivid detail.

After discussing the development and functions of tribal societies, Professor Webster traces their decline. He then advances to the chief novelty of his investigations, his attempt to prove that these societies are developments and manifestations of the original totemic organization of society. The evidence he adduces is scarcely convincing; and altogether the condition of our knowledge with regard to totemism has been so revolutionized by W. B. Spencer and F. J. Gillen that such a reconstruction is at the present moment somewhat hazardous. Nevertheless, Professor Webster's careful collection of facts constitutes in itself a valuable contribution.

Ancient Jerusalem. By Selah Merrill. Illustrated. New York: Fleming H. Revell Co. $6 net.

Dr. Selah Merrill's acquaintance with Jerusalem dates back to 1869, when he was connected with the American Palestine Exploration Fund, organized to conduct explorations east of the Jordan, while the English Fund cared for the West. In connection with that work he wrote "Explorations East of the Jordan"; and he is also author of a small popular book, "Galilee in the Time of Christ." For sixteen years he was American Consul in Jerusalem. His long experience in the Holy Land and his special opportunities for investigation led us to expect from this volume much pleasure and profit. We have been greatly disappointed.

It is a book of magnificent spaces, stately in appearance, printed on paper so heavy that the 400 pages feel like 600, with broad margins, short chapters, further divided, for the convenience of the reader, into sections, without foot-notes, with numerous maps and plans, and a reasonable number of photographic illustrations. Somewhat the same lavishness of space which we find in the printing of the book appears also in its composition. Many of the maps seem to be mere repetitions, only a close study revealing some small point of difference. Similarly the argument advances slowly, in a circular manner, as it were, with frequent repetitions.

The gist of Dr. Merrill's thesis is that, contrary to the generally accepted view of the present day, but in accordance with the view first propounded, we believe, by Robinson and now maintained by Conder, the original city of Jerusalem lay not on the eastern, or Temple, hill, but northward of the present Zion, or westerly hill, in the neighborhood of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre; and that the Acra, which plays so prominent a part in the story of the Maccabean contests, was located at this spot. The tombs beneath the Church of the Holy Sepulchre he believes to be the tombs of the ancient Kings of Judah. Dr. Merrill holds that he who would explore scientifically the topography of Jerusalem must begin with Josephus's account of the siege of Jerusalem in 70 A. D., and work backward and forward from that date; and he depends mainly upon Josephus, as he interprets him. To support this view that the hill north of Zion was the original city, the site of David's Millo, and of the Acra of the Maccabean period, Dr. Merrill abandons the commonly received view that Gihon of the Bible was the Virgin's Well, identifying it with Birket-Mamilla to the northwest of Jerusalem. Dr. Merrill is quite out of sympathy with modern views,

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and especially with modern views of the date and composition of Old Testament books, and on that account he fails to use the Bible effectively in his topographical studies. Moreover, his whole presentation is one-sided; he cites only that which tends to support his positions.

Science.

North American Trees: Being Descriptions and Illustrations of the Trees Growing Independently of Cultivation in North America, North of Mexico and the West Indies. By Nathaniel Lord Britton, with the assistance of John Adolph Shafer. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $10 net.

This is one of the volumes in the American Nature Series, a group of works designed to "answer questions which the contemplation of Nature is constantly arousing in the mind of the unscientific intelligent person." The series is to be comprehensive. According to the prospectus, it is to include the following divisions: Classification, Functions, and Realms of Nature, Working with Nature, Diversions from Nature, Man in Nature and Evolution. The present volume, the third in the first division, ought perhaps to be judged as a member of the series rather than as an independent treatise. If it is compared with some of the recent works on North American trees, such as C. S. Sargent's "Manual" or R. B. Hough's "Handbook," a decided preference would probably be expressed for either of the latter on the score of convenience, and of superiority of illustration. Professor Britton, who is director of the New York Botanical Garden, has been compelled by the demands of the series to give us a ponderous work instead of a handy manual. The amateur would not carry this bulky volume into the woods for the identification of trees; but in the home library it can fill an honorable place.

The author has endeavored to meet the "unscientific intelligent person" about halfway, by giving great prominence to the common instead of the botanical names. In the descriptions of species, for example, the common name comes first, in large type, and with excellent effect. There is always the objection that the common names may be different in different localities, as in the case of wintergreen, checkerberry, boxberry, etc.; but in this period of upheaval in biology, the scientific names are not the same everywhere. This latter statement is abundantly illustrated by Professor Britton's treatise. For instance, a Florida tree belonging to the four o'clock family, here figures under the name Torrubia longifolia, whereas, Sargent gives it as Pisonia. The common name "blolly" is easier to remember than either.

Although Professor Britton has marked the geographical limits on the title-page as north of Mexico and the West Indies, he has wisely included many references to outlying species which are practically within reach of our South. Many tropical species, like mahogany, have invaded our extreme Southern limits, and they deserve a certain place in a treatise like this. The authors have brought together a considerable amount of trustworthy and valuable information relative to uses, pharmaceutical and other. There is a good glossary of technical terms, and a double index, which appears to be full and accurate.

Next week the Macmillan Company will publish the third volume of the "Cyclopædia of American Agriculture," edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey. This volume is devoted entirely to animals.

Henry Holt & Co. have in press a volume by Vernon L. Kellogg, called "Insect Stories," to be issued in their American Nature Series.

In "Nature Study: a Manual for Teachers and Students" (Charles Scribner's Sons) Frederick L. Holtz of the Brooklyn Training School for Teachers has achieved a difficult and important task. He has attempted a practical textbook, embracing the whole field of natural science, for teachers of nature in normal training schools. No one mind can cover all parts of so vast and varied a field with equal ability; and it is therefore not strange that Mr. Holtz has treated some of his subjects superficially. Nevertheless, his book ought to be a helpful one to those for whom it was written. A somewhat jagged colloquial style results from the writer's adopting the attitude of a lecturer or instructor of a normal class. Part iii. gives "a graded course of nature study" which outlines for novices in teaching a method of continuous work which, though necessarily crude and incomplete, has many useful hints. In an appendix Mr. Holtz has a largely extended and classified list of useful books. This gives an impressive view of the enormous amount of nature literature afloat. And yet one observes some remarkable omissions, and wonders on what principle some of the selections have been made. Imagine, for example, a brief but excellent note on spider life wherein the writer ignores Emerton's "Common Spiders" and McCook's "American Spiders and their Spinningwork"; or that sends teachers to the ants, but gives them no clue to the last-named author's works on those insects, or to the numerous and admirable papers of Prof. W. M. Wheeler of New York, *facile princeps* among American (or indeed the world's) myrmecologists.

In the "Insect Book" (New York: the John Lane Co.), W. Percival Westell has given a brief but effective study of the more common insects of Great Britain. It does not aim to be a complete treatise. It does not affect strict scientific modes, but seeks to win the attention of the average reader to the attractive habits of creatures that everywhere surround us. Although written for British readers, it may well find a place upon an American library table, for the insect fauna of the two countries has much in common. Mr. Westell has succeeded in writing a delightful little book, easily read at a sitting, and in the main, accurate. But can he find good authority for his statement (p. 58) concerning "the wood ant" (apparently meaning Formica rufa), that "male ants accompany the females and help them to construct the insect city"? This seems to be wholly contrary to the general character of the male ant as a confirmed "gentleman loafer." One might also doubt if Mr. Westell has not gone too far in his aim to be popular and simple, by omitting so generally the scientific names.

Wilhelm Ostwald has issued, under the title "Der Werdegang einer Wissenschaft" (Leipzig: Akademische Verlagsgesellschaft), a new edition of his "Leitlinien der Chemie," only a little more than a year after the publication of the first edition. In speaking of the relations of Berzelius to his successors, Professor Ostwald enlarges on the frequent fate of a great man, especially if he be a leader in science, to be superseded by his followers, who, so to speak, stand on his shoulders. In the life of such a man we can distinguish, says the author, three periods. At first he stands alone, far ahead of his time, understood by none; then the younger generation grasps the new idea and carries it triumphantly over all obstacles, while the leader, relieved from detailed investigations and intent chiefly on pointing out the way, gradually loses touch with the younger men. Now the third period begins, the most pathetic in the life of a great man, when he either entirely steps aside, content to let the development take its course, though he himself be out of sympathy with it; or when, from a sense of duty, perhaps, and wishing to serve his cause as long as life and strength remain, he struggles against the new ideas which he cannot understand, and which he regards as tending to destruction.

Henry Phipps of Pittsburgh has offered a large gift to the Johns Hopkins Hospital at Baltimore—the amount is said to be $500,000—for the foundation of a Psychiatric Clinic, on the lines of similar institutions in Europe. The funds are to provide for the construction of a four-story hospital building on the Johns Hopkins Hospital grounds, to accommodate sixty patients, together with rooms for private patients, modern apparatus, and laboratories for the investigation of mental abnormalities. In addition, Mr. Phipps will maintain a skilled medical and nursing staff, and will pay the salaries of a professor of psychiatry and his assistants.

Drama.

Tragedy. By Ashley H. Thorndike. [The Types of English Literature.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 net.

It must be said that the *genre* attempted by Professor Thorndike in this not bulky volume is extremely difficult, if not impossible. In the first place the separation of tragedy from comedy forbids a full and unified historical view of the stage, and as a matter of fact Professor Thorndike's study suffers seriously in this respect; the physical conditions of acting in Shakespeare's day, important as they are for understanding the drama, are hurried over as being only half within his province. And to divide the work of a man—for most of the older dramatists wrote both tragedy and comedy—between two independent treatises must result in strange inconveniences, to say the least. On the other hand, even with one-half of the drama reserved for another book, it is impossible within so brief

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a compass to deal satisfactorily with English tragedy from the beginning almost to the present. Side lights and illustrations must be sacrificed. Thus, the personality of the tragedians can be seldom and scantily touched on. Yet the possible gain from anecdotes may be measured by Professor Thorndike's passing allusion to the fact that Marlowe's plays were composed to set off the acting of Edward Alleyn, whose stature (he was nearly seven feet tall) and imperial port had not a little to do with encouraging Marlowe in his extravagances as well as in his brave translunary things. And, beyond these lesser matters of biography lies the great field of history. There is only one way of comprehending the sudden alternations of passion, the bewildering conversions, and the whole absence of moral consistency in the Elizabethan tragedy (outside of Shakespeare, though even he does not entirely escape the confusion), and that is by comparison with the actual careers of the day. The life of Mary Stuart is the best commentary on the plays of Beaumont and Fletcher.

We must insist then that a good deal of the present work is necessarily unsatisfactory. It is not complete enough in detail to serve the scholar; it is often too meagre to preserve human interest. But, within the limitations, Prof. Thorndike has succeeded commendably. Perhaps, in his introductory chapters he has just fallen short in the difficult task of defining tragedy and marking out the scope of the work before him. Thus, in discussing the inevitable *katharsis*, he queries:

> Is it true that these elements of relief are always felt, or are always triumphant over our depression and dismay? May not the impressions of pain and destruction be unrelieved and overwhelming? What relief or exaltation is there in the first impression from "Œdipus," "Lear," or "Ghosts"? We are filled with confusion, dismay, pity. We cannot separate ourselves from the misery. We feel the intolerable burden of the world's woe. Our sympathies struggle beneath it, vainly, despairingly.

It seems to us, without entering into the question at large, that the impression produced by "Œdipus" and by "Ghosts" is essentially different, moral and liberating in the one case, physical and contracting in the other; and that this difference might have pointed the way to certain important generalizations which would have been serviceable throughout the book.

Elsewhere Professor Thorndike does not miss his opportunities. His tracing of mediæval methods into the Renaissance drama, his contrast of Christian and Senecan ideas, his connection of the Restoration with the Elizabethan stage, are notable both for scholarly understanding and clear execution. He is at his best, perhaps, in these historical sections, yet his characterizations of individual writers and plays, despite the limitations of space, are at times excellent. His comments on Chapman, for instance, are remarkable for saying much in little space. He is, of course, strong in praise of Shakespeare's fundamental qualities. Nevertheless, he is not afraid to speak of the "Elizabethan looseness of coherence" that marks the close of "Hamlet," or, while calling "Lear" an astounding triumph, to add that it does not "free itself entirely from a confusion of archaisms and absurdities." After the enormous efforts of Shakespearean scholars to justify the extravagances of these plays, it is good to hear the simple truth.

It is clear that Professor Thorndike has room in his sympathies for both the romantic and the classical conceptions of tragedy, as is shown particularly in his account of the eighteenth century. "Not one of the literary forms in which the eighteenth century excelled," he says, "and not one fully representing the pseudo-classical theories, tragedy cannot be fairly judged as representing classicism versus romanticism." The true romantic would not have given up his advantage so readily as that. Indeed, Professor Thorndike can add:

> Stage illusion and precision of effect may be aided by an observance of the unities, and the limitation of the action to a single plot, a few persons, and a few scenes—Shakespeare and encomiasts of his art to the contrary notwithstanding.

Yet, as a sign of his breadth or, may it be? a mark of conflicting ideas not quite reconciled in his mind, he can in the same chapter speak of "Johnson's salutary condemnation" of the unities.

Three new volumes (reckoning the double number as one) of the Tudor Facsimile Texts, from T. C. & E. C. Jack, of London, call for little comment, as they are of precisely the same character as the earlier issue reviewed in the *Nation* of April 16. For the present publication, Mr. Farmer, the editor, has taken four out of a group of seven "'Youth' and 'Prodigal' Plays," which together will cost £6 2s. 6d. net. One of the present quartos is a double number, containing the two parts of Henry Medwall's "Nature," reproduced from the only known copy (in the British Museum) of the only known edition (c. 1486-1500), though fragments of other copies exist. The second play is "Hickscorner," from a copy of the edition printed by Wynkyn de Worde some time in the first years of the sixteenth century. The date of composition is limited by an allusion to Newfoundland, discovered by Cabot in 1497, and another allusion to the ship Regent, destroyed by the French in 1512. The third play, "Youth," is from the unique copy, in the British Museum, of the edition of 1562. The relation of this edition to the two earlier known editions of the interlude will be set forth in another volume of Mr. Farmer's series. These collotypes, we need scarcely repeat, are beautifully made and reproduce the originals as exactly as human ingenuity can effect. J. A. Herbert, of the manuscript department of the British Museum, has compared the copies with the originals, and noted the least variation. In one or two places, the copy is slightly blurred, and in one place there is a spot, about the size of a pinhead, above a letter in the copy which is not in the original—variations that can scarcely alarm the most minute scholar. There are fifty plays already printed or in preparation, and others will be added if sufficient support is forthcoming. In one respect the usefulness of the books might be much improved at a comparatively small cost. A reprint in modern type ought to be added. This in double columns would require only a few pages of these quarto volumes.

Volumes XXIV. and XXV. of the Dowden Shakespeare have just been issued, in this country, by the Bobbs-Merrill Co. They contain "The Comedy of Errors," edited by Henry Cunningham (who prints "W. W.'s" translation of the "Menæchmi" in an appendix), and "King Richard the Third," edited by A. Hamilton Thompson. Mr. Cunningham holds to Malone's theory that Shakespeare spent part of his youth in an attorney's office.

The earlier and more general chapters of Jeannette Marks's "English Pastoral Drama" (London: Methuen & Co.) are feeble and sophomoric. The latter part of the book, which deals with specific pastoral dramas from the Restoration to the date of the publication of the "Lyrical Ballads," has some value in so far as it gives brief notices of plays that very few even among professed students of the drama have read. The most valuable section of the book is the bibliography in the appendixes.

Among the most important of recent contributions to French dramatic literature is a versified drama which is a genuine poem, the "Polyphème" of Albert Samain, a piece in two acts which has been given by the Comédie Française. The author died eight years ago, known for rather subtle, exquisitely worded poems. This posthumous production is more likely than any of them to remain in French literature.

"Le Théâtre nouveau," by René Doumic, gives a literary appreciation of recent plays by the critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The place the drama holds in contemporary French literature is shown by the fact that so many successful playwrights have been rewarded by seats in the French Academy—Paul Hervieu, Henri Lavedan, Jules Lemaître, Edmond Rostand, Maurice Donnay, and Jean Richepin in this volume. Among the others criticised are Lucien Descaves of the Goncourt Ten, Brieux, F. de Curel, Alfred Capus, Pierre Wolff, and the veteran Catulle Mendès. It is an event that Émile Faguet, another Academician, should have been obliged by ill health to abandon the historic chair of theatrical criticism at the *Journal des Débats;* his successor is Henri de Regnier.

Maurice Pellisson has translated into French the Danish investigations of Karl Mantzius on "Molière," the theatres, public, and comedians of his time.

Robert Mantell promises that at his engagement in this city next season he will give a spectacular revival of "Richelieu"; "The Merchant of Venice," with the scenery, dresses, and properties used by Beerbohm Tree in London; and "King John." This last is the most interesting announcement of all. It is so long since this play was presented here that it will come as a positive novelty to the vast majority of playgoers. Yet, as an acting play it stands high in the Shakespearean list. It is full of vital character and effective scenes. But it requires something more than one competent actor and a company of sticks. This was one reason, probably, why it did not figure in the later repertory of Edwin Booth. There are great possibilities in the parts of Hubert, the Bastard, Arthur, Elinor, and Constance, as well as in that of King John himself; and much may be made, by really able performers, of such lesser characters as Philip and Pandulph. Mr. Mantell, by a process of survival, has become, perhaps, the most prominent of our

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dwindling group of tragedians, and with capable support, especially in the leading female parts, he might become a dramatic figure of comparatively imposing dimensions. But he is not an actor strong enough or brilliant enough to make his way to the front, while laboring under such a handicap as he has been subject to during the last few seasons.

The London Stage Society has just produced "Links," by Herman Heijermann, the author of "The Good Hope," in which Ellen Terry played here some time ago. It is an intimate study of domestic life with dashes of coarse realism which are neither necessary nor pleasant.

During his coming tenancy of the London St. James's, Forbes Robertson will rely upon a new play by Jerome K. Jerome. He has, however, arranged to give a series of matinées of Henry James's piece, "The High Bid," produced a couple of months ago at Edinburgh.

Francis C. Bangs, whose death is announced from Atlantic City, was a sound and useful actor in his day. Born in Virginia about seventy-five years ago, he made his first appearance upon the stage in Washington, and soon became known as a promising novice. In the civil war he fought on the Confederate side. Upon the restoration of peace he returned to the stage, playing William Tell and other parts. He also taught elocution. His reputation, however, rested chiefly upon his Marc Antony, in which character he played, first with Edwin Booth, and later in the revival of "Julius Cæsar," with Davenport as Brutus and Barrett as Cassius. At first his performance was one of conspicuous merit, worthy of association with the fiery and intellectual Cassius of Barrett and the noble Brutus of Davenport; but in course of time it degenerated into an exhibition of mere sound and fury, signifying nothing. Afterward he played with success in "Sardanapalus," "The Silver King," "Michael Strogoff," etc. While his strength endured he was always an effective player in romantic melodrama.

Art.

The Keramic Gallery: Containing Several Hundred Illustrations of Rare, Curious, and Choice Examples of Pottery and Porcelain from the Earliest Times to the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century. By William Chaffers; second edition, revised and edited by H. M. Cundall. New York: Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. $12.50 net.

How to Collect Continental China. By C. H. Wylde. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.

Lead Glazed Pottery. Part I.: Common Clays. By Edwin Atlee Barber. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. 90 cents net.

A well-made and valuable, if somewhat colorless book, which undertakes to cover the entire field of pottery, has been improved, and, in many respects, brought down to date in Mr. Cundall's revised edition. The late William Chaffers came of a family of English potters. He had an encyclopædic mind, which from early youth was directed mainly to study of the keramic arts. The excellences of his chief work, "Marks and Monograms on Pottery and Porcelain," have been freely acknowledged. "The Keramic Gallery" is less monumental, though as a popular presentation it has served a useful purpose. The substitution of admirable half-tone illustrations in place of the specially mounted prints accompanying the earlier volume would justify the new edition even if no changes had been made in the letterpress; and more than one hundred illustrations have been added in the new edition. It is, indeed, primarily a picture book of the achievements of the world's potters down to 1800. Changes in the text, as prepared by Mr. Chaffers, have been made solely in order to correct inaccuracies; and a few additional paragraphs contain material which was not within Mr. Chaffers's scope.

It would be strange if in a book covering so wide a field, a few minor inaccuracies and lacunæ did not still remain. The story, for example, of Böttger's discovery of kaolin in adulterated wig powder is stated as if it were well authenticated fact, instead of belonging, as many writers maintain, with the legendary accounts of Tell and the apple. Again no reference is made to recent discussions of the origin of imitations, discovered in England, of Chinese porcelain, apparently belonging to the Elizabethan era, and possibly made in Great Britain. Fault, possibly, might be found with the technical description of the treatment of clays, as practised at every good pottery. In particular the relationships of "lean" and "fat" earths—as fundamental in the potter's practices as the relations of "warm" and "cool" on the painter's palette—have certainly not been clearly developed.

But the book as a whole is a treasure house of trustworthy information. That from its nature the discussion lacks continuity, that developments in the art are never exhaustively and not always even suggestively followed out, is not, perhaps, to be charged against it; the letterpress of an illustrated "Gallery" is not expected to be a masterpiece of critical exposition. The data, at all events, have not been arranged in accordance with chronological and evolutionary sequences. The chapter on Persian pottery, for instance, has been placed at the very end of the book. Yet on the confines of Persia stanniferous pottery originated, and connection can be traced—as is indicated in another chapter of "The Keramic Gallery"—from the Persian potteries across northern Africa, through the Hispano-Moresque wares to Italy and the rest of Europe. Again, the discussion of Chinese and Japanese potteries and porcelains is singularly scanty and inadequate. In brief, the new edition is more likely to be useful to the collector who wants to know the characteristics and marks of, say, the hard-paste porcelains made in the provincial town of Wallendorf, in Saxe-Coburg, than to the student who desires rightly to relate the development of pottery to the history of civilization.

That details regarding the facture and marking of soft and hard-paste porcelains may be grouped around general truths in a manner illuminating to every-day readers, has been demonstrated in a much less impressive, and less expensive, volume than "The Keramic Gallery." C. H. Wylde's "How to Collect Continental China" is, to be sure, simply a popular monograph, printed on only moderately good paper, though with excellent illustrations on glazed inserts. For the benefit of collectors, it abounds in technical information; whole pages are given up to lists of the principal marks used at Sèvres and other manufacturing centres. Yet, because the description of each type is led up to with a little exposition of the personality and motives of the potters, the book leaves an impression of being readable and entertaining.

The central theme is that European potters in the seventeenth century, through a change of fashion that established a preference for Eastern porcelains rather than the enamelled wares popular up to that time, were compelled either to make some kind of porcelain, or go out of business. The art began in imitation; that it ended by exhibiting admirable qualities which, though delightful in and for themselves, differed radically from the prototype, was the result of no intention on the part of the originators. Wherever porcelain began to be made in Europe, the prime aim was to keep at home some of the money that was being spent upon Oriental products. In succinct narratives, Mr. Wylde describes the adventures and experiments of the founders of the principal European porcelain works—of such men as Böttger and Tschirnhaus, in Germany, and Charles François Hannong, the first maker of hard-paste porcelain in France. The illustrations are mostly groups of museum pieces, admirably selected. The author's hints concerning the detection of forgeries would, if consistently followed, put money into the pockets of many Americans who haunt auction rooms at home and abroad.

Dr. Barber's "Lead Glazed Pottery" is a useful addition to the series of Primers of Art for which the collections of the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art afford extensive material. The information regarding the development of *sgraffito and slip-decorated wares of European* countries has been carefully collated from the accepted authorities. The author's original contribution has undoubted interest. German immigrants late in the seventeenth century started numerous small pot works in Pennsylvania; and Dr. Barber has brought together for the first time entertaining data concerning these early attempts. If pictures had been omitted, an impression might have been left of rather an important fictile art—one comparable with that of making colonial furniture. A few of the tulip decorated dishes, as a matter of fact, are not altogether contemptible as works of art. But many of the illustrations reveal among the colonial potters the crudest draughtsmanship and taste. The worst of these, it should be said, belong to the post-revolutionary period. A sgraffito pie plate, by Johannes Neesz of Tyler's Port, Pa., depicting an impossible George Washington on a horse a little larger than an eohippus, is a particularly horrible example.

The third volume of the "Storia degli Scavi di Roma," by Commendatore Rodolfo Lanciani (Rome: Loescher), carries the history from the accession of Julius III., in

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1550, to the death of Pius IV., at the close of 1565. Between the reigns of these two pontiffs fell those of Marcellus II. and of Paul IV. The reign of Marcellus is notable only for its extreme brevity—twenty-two days—and for the fact that he is said to have contemplated the banishment of all music from church services, from which dire possession he was delivered by hearing a mass of Palestrina. The Popes whose names mark the beginning and end of the three lustra covered by Lanciani in the present volume are both noteworthy to the student of Roman topography and archæology. Under Julius III. three great villas and their collections of antiquities were built up—the Villa Giulia, the Villa Mattei, and the Villa Medici. The story of these three undertakings forms the main part of Lanciani's chapter on this reign. He also describes the dispersion of the treasures, overstepping, as in the second volume, the chronological limits of his period in order to avoid a disjointed narrative. The reign of Pius IV. has left its mark all over Rome for the veriest tourist to observe and admire. The many embellishments of the Vatican Palace, the fortifications of the Borgo and of the Castle, the Porte Pia and del Popolo, with the roads leading from them, the restoration of the Acqua Vergine and of the Pantheon, with scores of other important works, have made a lasting impression upon the character of the city. The volume concludes with full indexes, after the general manner of those in the preceding volume, and an interesting appendix on the Roman antiquaries of the sixteenth century.

Under the general title of Studien über christliche Denkmäler, Johannes Ficker is publishing through Dieterich, in Leipzig, an elaborate collection of archæological material from the early Christian church. The fifth and sixth parts, entitled "Kleinasiatische Denkmäler aus Pisidien, Pamphylien, Kappadokien, und Lykien," by Hans Rott, with additions by Dr. K. Michel, L. Messerschmidt and Dr. W. Weber, contain 8 tables, 130 illustrations, and an archæological chart of Asia Minor. The data are mostly the result of special research during the years 1906 and 1907. The four other parts of the series, which have all appeared within the past twelve months, are the following: "Gebet und Bild in frühchristlicher Zeit," by Karl Michel; "Die frühchristliche Darstellungen von der Kreuzigung Christi," by Johannes Reil; "Das geographische Mosaik von Madaba: die älteste Karte des heiligen Landes," by Adolf Jacoby; and "Die christlichen Denkmäler des ersten Jahrtausends in der Schweiz," by S. Gu[illegible]er.

The house of Wilhelm Weicher of Leipzig has begun, in pamphlet issues, a richly illustrated work, "Die Meister der Malerei und ihre Werke: fünf Jahrhunderte Malkunst in Deutschland, Italien, Spanien, Frankreich, England, und den Niederlanden," by Max Rooses, director of the Museum Plantin Moretus in Antwerp. The author purposes to give a careful account of the development of painting in Europe from the year 1400. The first fasciculus, devoted to the earliest painters of the Netherlands, promises good things. The work is to appear in twelve parts, with nearly five hundred illustrations, and to be completed by the end of the year.

At Christie's, London, May 29, the collections of the late Sir James Knowles and the late Sir Robert Loder were sold. Among the more important items were the following: Watts, The Rider on the White Horse, £273; D. G. Rossetti, Proserpine, £325; Romney, Portrait of a Lady, in white dress, £315; Hoppner, Mrs. Sophia Dawson, in white dress, £997; Mrs. Sarah Dawson, in white dress, £703; William Dawson, in blue coat, £220; Reynolds, Woody Landscape, intersected by a stream of water, £430; Gainsborough, Portrait of the Artist's Daughter (Mary the youngest), £4,777; Portrait of the Artist's Wife (Margaret Burr), £2,782; Lawrence, Heads of Emily and Laura, daughters of C. B. Calmady, Esq., £588; Two Young Children, with fruit in a landscape, £399; A. and L. Le Nain, A Children's Concert, £1,333; Claude Lorraine, The Fishermen and Angler, £671; J. van de Capelle, A Calm, £1,102; J. Ruysdael, The Bleaching-Ground, £987. A Drawing by T. M. Richardson, In the Pass of Glencoe, brought £242.

Finance.

FINANCIAL MARKETS AND NOMINATING CONVENTIONS.

One of the traditions of financial markets is that a Presidential election, in its effect both on general trade and on the stock exchanges, is very unsettling. Immediately before the nominations there is likely to be almost complete suspension of activity on the exchanges. On May 19, transactions on the New York Stock Exchange were 1,400,000 shares, and they followed a series of "million-share days." As recently as June 2, the day's trading nearly touched the million-share mark. Yet on four days of last week, when the Republican Convention was assembling at Chicago, the daily record did not rise above 200,000 shares. On one day it declined to 147,000, and it has continued around that insignificant figure during the present week. This action is by no means without precedent. A few weeks before the nominating convention of 1904, from a million to a million and a quarter of shares were often sold on the New York Exchange; yet in the week before the nomination the daily total dropped to between 200,000 and 240,000. In May, 1900, the average full day's trading ranged from 500,000 to a million shares; but on the eve of the Republican Convention at Philadelphia, in the third week of June, it ran repeatedly as low as 150,000 shares.

On each of these three occasions, the decrease was due unquestionably to the feeling of large investors and speculators that they were facing an uncertainty. True, McKinley's renomination was taken for granted by every one in 1900, and Roosevelt's in 1904. Nevertheless, there remained the chance of a different outcome. Nominating conventions, however docile, are subject to peculiar influences. The financial mind has never quite got over the shock of 1896, when Bryan's florid oratory set the Democratic convention wild, and overturned all previous plans. Apparently, the Republican Convention of this present week had as sure a programme before it as did those of 1900 and 1896, but it was still a mass-meeting in the guise of a nominating convention, and this was still an after-panic year. People who buy stocks in expectation of higher prices, or sell in expectation of lower, have evidently taken counsel of prudence pending actual results, as they did four and eight years ago.

This particular restraint is only temporary. The question of larger interest is, just what effect the campaign itself may be expected to have on trade, and thence on the financial markets. In other words, will the traditions of a dull and reactionary "Presidential year" be fulfilled in 1908, or not? The first point to examine is the real cause of the unsettled markets of previous Presidential years. Were they a result merely of the fact that a change of executive was possible? The possibility of such change means uncertainty as to public policies. Therefore business plans naturally halt. For example, a manufacturer may prefer the lower tariff; but it will make considerable difference to his business plans and arrangements which policy is pursued, and he cannot well make extensive preparations for the longer future until he knows under which he is to work. Uncertainty as to the standard of value, as in the campaign of 1896, and to a less degree in 1900, is even more unsettling; for the verdict at the polls might mean absolute financial confusion. It is not strange that, while such an issue was being fought out, industry should have rested on its oars.

How much of the "Presidential year reaction" has been attributable to these particular causes, and how much to general doubt as to the effect of unseating the party in power, is an open question. General considerations would seem to have been the controlling influence, for example, in the trade hesitation during the campaign of 1880, when neither currency nor tariff was really at issue. That such reaction was almost wholly absent, after the nominations of 1904, may probably be ascribed, not alone to the fact that the currency had ceased to be a point of dispute, but to the country's conviction, from the first, that Mr. Roosevelt's success was assured.

It is at least possible that, as events develop, a similar feeling will arise this year, in spite of the practically uniform precedent, that the party in power during a severe financial panic is unseated in the ensuing Presidential election. Events beyond the control of either party have thus

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far been unusually favorable to the Republicans. Nothing usually stops financial reaction or distress more speedily than an extraordinarily abundant and profitable harvest; and at the present moment, this is precisely what is indicated.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Art in England during the Elizabethan and Stuart Periods. Lane. $2.50.
Bailey, Joseph Whitman. First Impressions of Europe. Grafton Press. $1.25 net.
Bayne, S. G. Quickstep through Scandinavia. Harpers.
Brisbane, Arthur. Mary Baker G. Eddy. Boston: Ball Publishing Co. $1 net.
Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of Illinois, Fourteenth Biennial Report of the. Springfield: Phillips Bros.
Carnegie Library of Pittsburg, Classified Catalogue of the. Part IV. Pittsburg.
Chaddock, Robert E. Ohio Before 1850. Columbia University.
Childs, Mary Fairfax. De Namin' of de Twins. B. W. Dodge & Co. $1 net.
Dieserud, Juul. Science and Anthropology. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.
Dillon, John M. Motor Days in England. Putnams. $3 net.
Elkus, Savilla Alice. The Concept of Control. New York: The Science Press.
Enright, Maurice. The Ridgefield Tavern. Brooklyn: The Eagle.
Galsworthy, John. The Island Pharisees. Putnams. $1.50.
Greenwood, William. Horace. Des Moines, Ia.
Gresham, Otto. The Dred Scott Case. Chicago: Barnard & Miller.
Hamilton, Cecily. Diana of Dobson's. Century Co. $1.50.
James, Henry. Views and Reviews. Boston: Ball Publishing Co. $1.50.
James, William. Dictionary of English and German Languages. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Kent, George H. The Ware Collection of Blaschka Glass Flower Models. Cambridge, Mass.; University Bookstore.
Kintzing, Pearce. Long Life and How to Attain It. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1 net.
Land Title Registration Law of the State of New York. Completely Indexed. Albany: M. Bender & Co.
Lodge, Sir Oliver. The Immortality of the Soul. Boston: Ball Publishing Co. $1 net.
McDermott, Charles H. The Gospel of Greed. Boston: Chapple Publishing Co.
O'Sullivan, Denis. The Cold-Storage Baby. Oswego, N. Y.: Ontario Publishing Co.
Pemberton, Max. Sir Richard Escombe. Harpers.
Pollock, Simon. The Russian Bastille. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Preuss, Arthur. A Study in American Freemasonry. St. Louis: B. Herder.
Pyle, Howard, and others. Adventures of Pirates and Sea-Rovers. Harpers. 60 cents.
Rhodes, James. The Training of the Imagination. Lane. 50 cents.
Roberts, Charles G. D. The House in the Water. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Roeder, Adolph. Practical Citizenship. New York: Isaac H. Blanchard Co. $1.50 net.
Ross, Edward Alsworth. Social Psychology. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Sarolea, Charles. Cardinal Newman. Imported by Scribner's. $1.25.
Scudder, Sam. The Counterfeit Citizen. Broadway Publishing Co. $1.50.
Selous, Frederick Courtney. African Nature Notes and Reminiscences. Macmillan. $3 net.
Stanton, Rossington. An Essay on the Distribution of Livelihood. New York: C. O. Farwell. $1.50.
Strachey, J. St. Loe. Problems and Perils of Socialism. Macmillan. 25 cents net.
Talbot, Arthur N. Tests of Cast-Iron and Reinforced Concrete Culvert Pipe. Urbana; University of Illinois.
Tardieu, André. Notes sur Les États-Unis. Paris: Calmann-Lévy.
Taylor, John M. The Witchcraft Delusion in Colonial Connecticut. Grafton Press. $2 net.
Upson, Henry S. Insomnia Nerve Strain. Putnams. $1.50 net.
Walker, W. L. The Teaching of Christ. Imported by Scribner's. $1 net.
Ware, Richard D. In the Woods and on the Shore. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Yriarte, Charles. Francesca Di Rimini. Translated by Arnold Harris Mathew. London: David Nutt.

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